A SYNOPSIS OF ENGLISH SYNTAX

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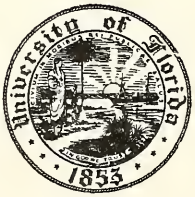

A Synopsis of

English Syntax

by Eugene A. Nida

edited by Benjamin Elson

Linguistic series Number four
A Publication of the Summer Institute of Linguistics
of the University of Oklahoma
Norman 1960

408.2
S955
no.4

Primera edición
Enero, 1960

Esta edición consta de 1000 ejemplares

Derechos Reservados
por el
Instituto Lingüístico de Verano
Héroes 53 México, D. F.

Impreso en México Printed in Mexico

1M5913.

Editor's Note

During the past five years there has been an increasing interest in syntactic studies. The justification for the publication at this time of a study of English syntax written twenty years ago is that it is still the most exhaustive study of the subject based on the immediate constituent model. New models have been developed since: Chomsky's transformational model, Pike's tagmemic model. Since descriptive studies are being made using these, Nida's work will be useful for comparing the relative efficiency of the various models.

Eugene A. Nida was born in Oklahoma, attended the University of California at Los Angeles, and received the Ph. D. degree from the University of Michigan. He was associated for many years with the Summer Institute of Linguistics, and did field work in the Tarahumara language of northern Mexico. He is now Secretary of the Translations Department of the American Bible Society, and is the author of many books and articles in the field of linguistics.

The series of linguistic publications in which this volume is included is designed to provide in a relatively inexpensive form material for linguists, ethnologists, folklorists, and other scholars, including both native texts, as in the first three publications, and descriptive material, as in the present volume.

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Preface

With the exception of the following Preface this Synopsis of English Syntax was presented to the University of Michigan as a doctoral dissertation in 1943, and it is obviously a precarious undertaking to publish a scientific work so many years after it was written. So much takes place in the present-day development of any science, and surely Descriptive Linguistics is no exception, for in this field particularly there have been almost unprecedented advances both in theory and methodology. One thing is certain: If I were going to rewrite this dissertation it would be in many respects quite different.

Any present treatment of English syntax, such as was attempted in this Synopsis, would have to pay much greater attention to intonation, which is here treated only under Bloomfield's taxeme of "modulation." But my analysis was done prior to Pike's initial work on English intonation (Kenneth L. Pike. The Intonation of American English. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945) and the later treatments by Wells (Rulon S. Wells "The Pitch Phonemes of English," Language, 21.27-39, 1945) and by Trager and Smith (George L. Trager and Henry Lee Smith Jr. An Outline of English Structure, Studies in Linguistics, Occasional Papers, 3. Norman, Oklahoma: Battenburg Press, 1951). The consistent and careful notation of intonational structures would have clarified a number of structures and have provided criteria for distinguishing otherwise confusing patterns.

The present Synopsis is also lacking in a systematic analysis of phonemic junctures, both actual and

potential. Such features would have provided important diagnostic, though not necessarily, definitive criteria for many immediate-constituent divisions. However, in 1943 the significance of junctures was only being initially explored, and since that time their relevance for any grammatical treatment of English has been fully attested (see Trager and Smith, op. cit., and Noam Chomshy, Morris Halle, and Fred Lukoff. "On Accent and Juncture in English" in the volume For Ramon Jakobsen, 1956, pp. 65-80).

The employment of Pike's "Tagmemic Theory" (Kenneth L. Pike. Language in Relation to a Unified Theory of the Structure of Human Behavior. Glendale, California: Summer Institute of Linguistics, 1954; "Grammemic Theory in Reference to Restricted Problems of Morpheme Classes," IJAL, 23.119-128, 1957; and "On Tagmemes, Née Grammemes," IJAL, 24.273-92, 1958) would be useful in focusing attention on the "spots" which are structurally relevant, but the general orientation of the approach adopted in this Synopsis is toward the constructions in terms of immediate constituents, rather than the string of units which comprise the total frame.

Perhaps the most useful, recently developed technique and descriptive framework would be "transformational analysis" (see Zellig S. Harris. "Co-occurrence and Transformation in Linguistic Structure," Language, 33.283-340, 1957; Noam Chomsky. Syntactic Structures. 's-Gravenhage: Mouton and Co., N.V., 1957; and Robert B. Lees. "Review of Syntactic Structures by Noam Chomsky," Language, 33.375-408, 1957). The recognition of the transforms, in terms of basic kernel sentences capable of gener-

ating different types of constructions, would enable one to distinguish between formally similar constructions which are structurally distinguishable in that they are derived from different kernels and in turn give rise to diverse constructions.

In addition to these four significant areas of major advance in descriptive methodology as related to syntax, there are of course a number of other important contributions, each of which would, in its area of special concern, influence any future revision of this type of Synopsis. Perhaps the most important of these articles and books are the following:

Harris, Zellig S. "From Morpheme to Utterance," Language, 22.161-183 (1946).

_____ Methods in Structural Linguistics. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951.

Wells, Rulon S. "Immediate Constituents," Language, 23.81-117 (1947).

Fries, Charles Carpenter. The Structure of English; An Introduction to the Construction of English Sentences. New York: Harcourt Brace and Co., 1952.

Bar-Hillel, Yehoshua. "A Quasi-Arithmetical Notation for Syntactic Description," Language, 29.47-58 (1953).

On the basis of the extent to which the following Synopsis would need to be changed in order to bring it into line with contemporary developments in the field of descriptive linguistics, it is quite legitimate to ask why at such a late date this dissertation is being published, especially when the original work

was not prepared with any intention of publication (this would have required fuller explanations of many technical terms, a more extensive introduction, and many more copious notes). The truth is that quite contrary to normal expectation there has been a consistent demand for copies of this dissertation, and already it has been put out in two multilith editions of several hundred copies each and more recently most of the disseration was published in Japan with a special introduction and notes in Japanese. The reasons for interest in this syntactic analysis have probably been largely two-fold: (1) it is still the most extensive synopsis of English constructions described in terms of immediate constituents and (2) it contains many useful lists of words functioning as syntactic classes.

In addition to the shortcomings noted above, the reader will inevitably recognize several others, including especially:

1. The lack of phonemic notation for the illustrative data.
2. An arrangement which places the immediate constituents of many constructions at quite a distance from each other in the outline.
3. A failure to treat alternative orders as fully as they should have been handled.
4. The recognition of certain alternative arrangements of immediate constituents, but without a systematic attempt to follow out the implications of such alternative structuring.
5. The somewhat "antequated" terminology, especially in the use of the form-function dichotomy, rather than of the item-arrangement or

item-distribution distinction. It should be noted, however, that more or less throughout the disseration the vocabulary follows Bloomfield's usage, e.g. modulation, pause-pitch, taxeme, relation-axis construction, etc.

In the present preparation of this volume for publication some minor changes have been introduced. These involve (1) the "smoothing out" of some awkward descriptions, (2) the addition of a few footnotes, where the text seems to be unduly obscure, and (3) the rearrangement of some few sections, e.g. the treatment of non-restrictive clauses.

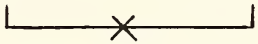
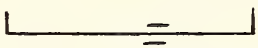
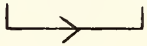
It has been recognized that one of the major obstacles to the practical use of this dissertation has been the fact that due to the outline method of presentation the immediate constituents of constructions are often widely separated from each other. This has seemed unavoidable if relatively succinct statements are to cover a maximum number of instances and be arranged so as to reflect their structural subordination or superordination. However, the reader needs a more practical guide to the structure of the dissertation than is provided by the rather lengthy and involved form of outlining. Accordingly, appended to this Preface is a list of constructions with relevant examples having beneath them a structural diagram indicating ranks and relationships. Though the order of constructions is not exactly the same as the outline, they are grouped in such a way as to provide what seems to be maximum intelligibility, and page references indicated the position within the outline where the constructions in question are more fully treated. Since at each stage the list of constructions

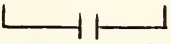
in this Preface indicate both immediate constituents, it is inevitable that there should be some degree of overlapping and repetition, but this has been done intentionally in order that the structural statements to which they refer in the following Synopsis may be more adequately understood. However, in treating the constructions of highest rank, we have purposely chosen very simple components so as not to unduly complicate the "picture" by introducing constructions which are only described in detail in subsequent sections.

In the following illustrated series of constructions we have not necessarily used precisely those which occur at various points in the Synopsis itself, for in many instances the latter are not the most readily understood and they would require explanations, which are better left to the text. The series does begin with the higher ranking constructions and proceeds to smaller units, but it does not necessarily follow the precise order of the outline, for some rearranging and lifting out of certain sections has been necessary in order to present the progression in an intelligible fashion (such changes of order can be readily noted from the references to pagination of the Synopsis). In a few instances the illustrative series is fuller than the Synopsis, for rather than refer back to previously described constructions, it has seemed preferable simply to repeat certain of the structural types. In many cases it has seemed wise to include in the examples somewhat more than is required to identify the immediate constituents in question. In these instances the additional element (or elements) is included within parentheses, but the structural relationships are drawn in so that the relationship of the

construction to the immediately higher structural rank (or ranks) can be seen.

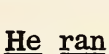
In addition to the usual set of lines used to show relationships between immediate constituents, an additional set of symbols has been employed to mark exocentric, endocentric, and paratactic relationships:

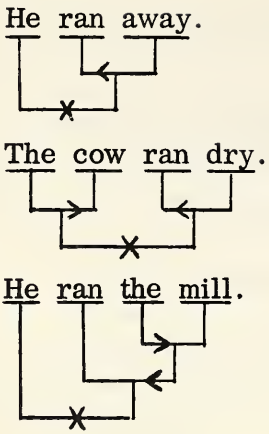
Hypotactic
- Exocentric 
- Endocentric
  - Coordinate 
  - Subordinate  (with the arrow pointing toward the head constituent)

Paratactic 

Under paratactic constructions no attempt is made to distinguish between (a) appositive, (b) duplicative, and (c) associative types of parataxis, since the constructions are not numerous and the relationships are usually quite evident.

Some brief explanation may be required for certain types of subordinate endocentric relationships, namely, the attributives to transitive and equational verbs. All regular predicate constructions (there are a few minor types not possessing verb heads) have verbs as the indispensable component and the additional constituents are structurally "attributive" to these verbs (though they do not "modify" the verb in the same way that adjectives seem to modify noun heads). The following series indicates the structural relevance of the verb head.

He ran.




We may describe the equational verb with its equated attributive (e.g. was good) and the transitive verb with its objects, including both direct and indirect (e.g. hit the man and gave him a quarter) as being structurally equivalent to an intransitive verb, with or without attributives. The indispensable and head constituents of such expressions are verbs and the attributives should be regarded as being endocentrically subordinate to these heads.

It is important to note that the so-called "predicate nominative" (here described as an "equated attributive") is not structurally attributive to the subject (even though the words in question may semantically modify the subject), for a verb plus equated attributive may occur entirely without an specific subject, e.g. To be good is a dubious advantage in some circumstances, in which the verb expression to be is followed by the equated attributive good without any subject constituent.

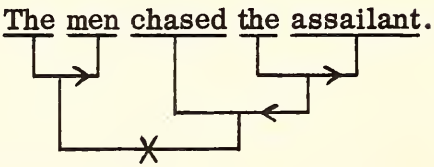
New York, May 1959 Eugene A. Nida

Outline of Structures

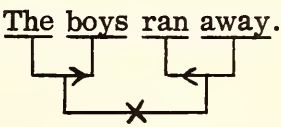
I. Major Sentence Types (pp. 40-215)

A. Actor-Action (pp. 40-173)

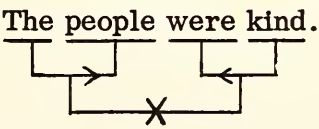
1. Transitive (pp. 40-152)



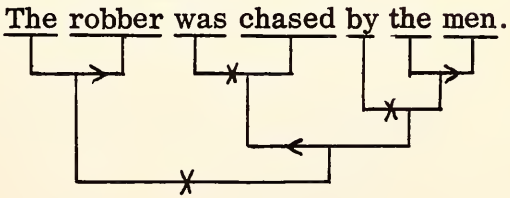
2. Intransitive (pp. 153-159)



3. Equational (pp. 160-173)



B. Goal-Action (pp. 174-185)



English Syntax

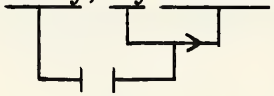
II. Minor Sentence Types (pp. 216-219)

A. Completive Expressions (p. 216)

Yes!

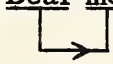
No!

Sorry, my mistake.

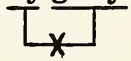


B. Exclamatory Expressions (pp. 216-219)

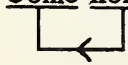
Dear me!



By golly!

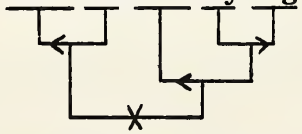


Come home!

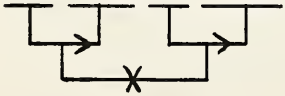


C. Aphoristic Expressions (p. 219)

Love me love my dog.

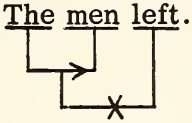


The more the better.



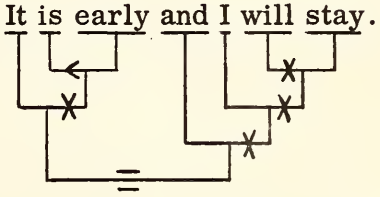
III. Single and Multiple Clauses (pp. 40-215)

A. Single Clause Frames (pp. 40-213)

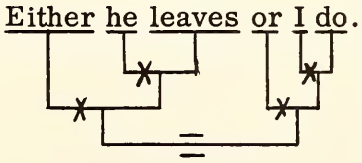


B. Multiple Clause Frames (pp. 214-215)

1. With Single Coordinators

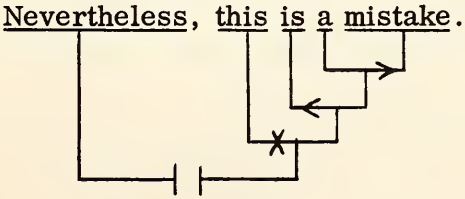


2. With Double Coordinators

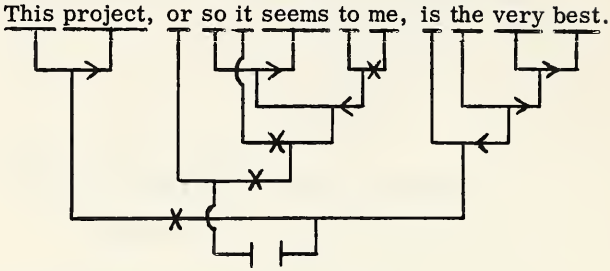


IV. Clauses with Clause Attributives (pp. 186-189)

A. With Non-Parenthetical Attributives (Associative Parataxis) (pp. 186-188)



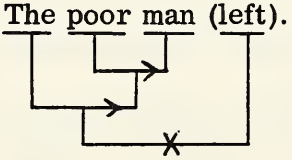
B. With Parenthetical Attributives (Associative Parataxis) (pp. 188-189)



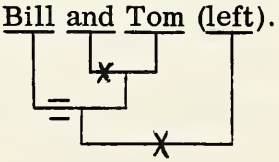
V. Subject Expressions (pp. 40-104)

A. Single and Multiple Frames (p. 41)

1. Single



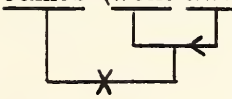
2. Multiple



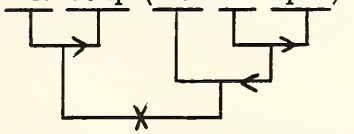
B. Subject Expressions Classified as to Types of Head Constituents (pp. 42-57)

1. Nouns (p. 42)

James (went away).

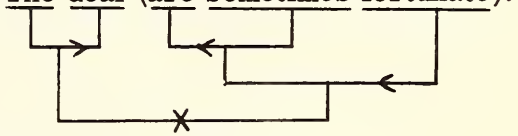


The soup (hits the spot).



2. Adjectives (pp. 43-44)

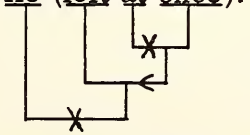
The deaf (are sometimes fortunate).



3. Substitutes (pp. 45-54)

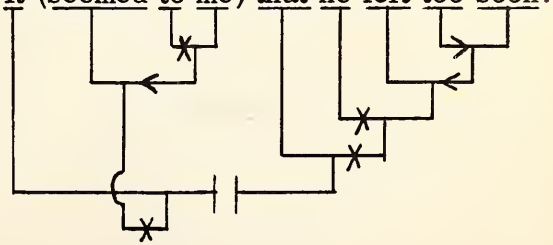
   a. Without Antecedent within the Same Clause

He (left at once).



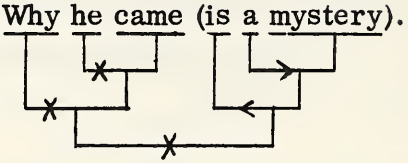
   b. With Antecedent within the Same Clause (Duplicative Parataxis) (pp. 49-51)

It (seemed to me) that he left too soon.

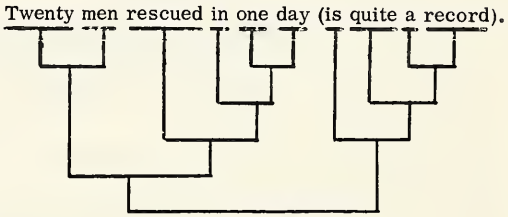


4. Clauses

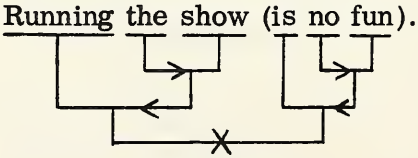
a. With Conjunctive Markers (p. 54)



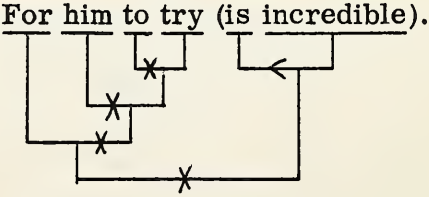
b. Without Conjunctive Markers (p. 55)



5. First Verbals (p. 55)



6. Prepositional Phrases (with included dependent-form clause) (p. 56)



C. Subject Heads with Attributives (pp. 58-104)

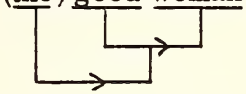
1. With Bounded Attributives (pp. 58-85)

a. Post-Determiner Attributives (pp. 58-74)

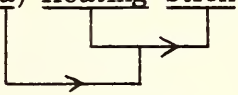
1'. Primary Attributives (pp. 58-68)

a'. Single (pp. 58-59)

(the) good woman

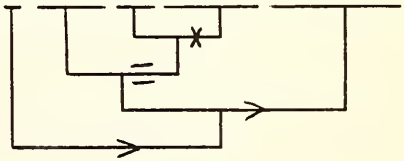


(a) floating stick



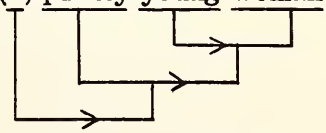
b'. Multiple Coordinate (p. 59)

(a) lovely and gracious personality

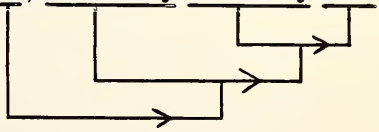


c'. Multiple Accumulative (pp. 59-60)

(a) pretty young woman

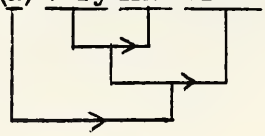


(the) university chemistry club

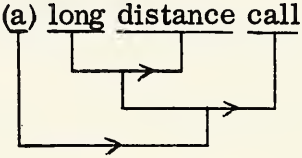


2'. Secondary Post-Determiner Attributives (pp. 69-72)

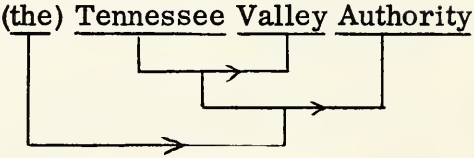
(a) very fine dress



(a) long distance call

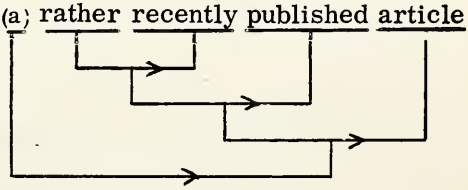


(the) Tennessee Valley Authority

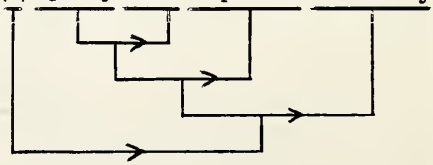


3'. Tertiary Post-Determiner Attributives (pp. 73-75)

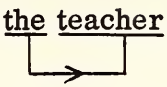
(a) rather recently published article

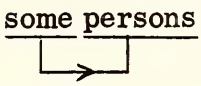


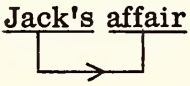
(a) Sperry flour inspection laboratory



b. Determiner Attributives (pp. 75-81)

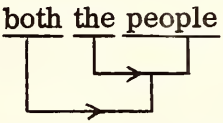


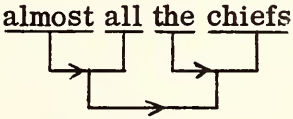




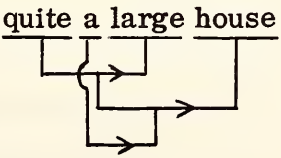
c. Pre-Determiner Attributives (pp. 81-85)

1'. Attributives to the Determiner-to-Head Complex (pp. 81, 84-86)





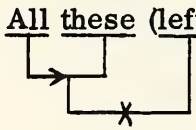
2'. Attributives to an Included Bounded Attributive (p. 83)[1]

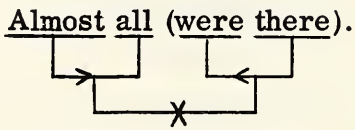


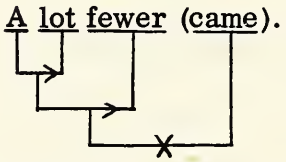
[1]Structurally these belong with Secondary Post-Determiner Attributives.

2. Preposed Attributives Plus Substitutes as Subject Heads (pp. 85-88)

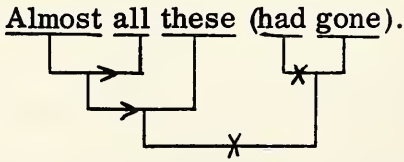
   a. Primary







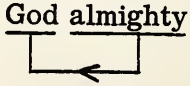
   b. Secondary



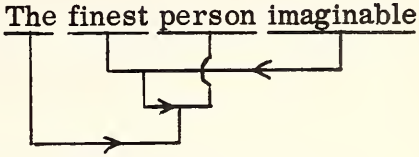
3. Post-Posed Attributives Plus Subject Heads (pp. 88-104)

   a. Adjectives

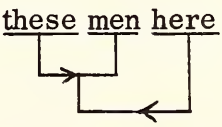
      1'. Attributive to Head (p. 88)

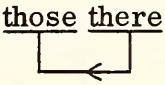


2'. Attributive to Bounded Attributive (p. 89)[2]

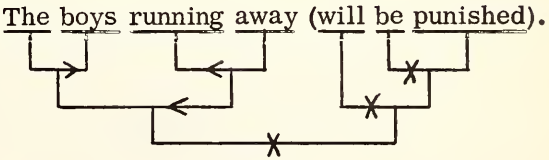


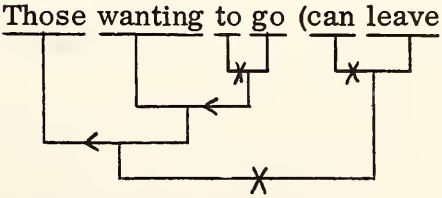
b. Adverbs (p. 89)





c. First Verbals (pp. 89-90)

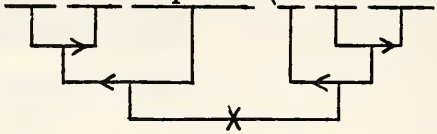




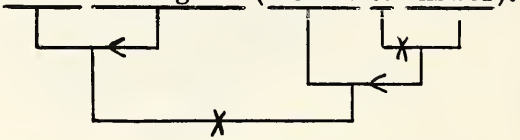
[2]Structurally these belong with Secondary Post-Determiner Attributives.

d. Second Verbals (p. 90)

The sum required (is too much).



Those investigated (refused to answer).



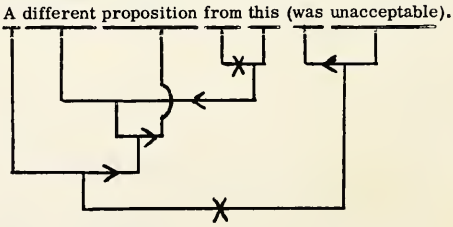
e. Prepositional Phrases (pp. 90-91)

1'. Attributive to Entire Preceding Subject Element

Those at prayer (were unmolested).

2'. Attributive to Included Bounded Attributives [3]

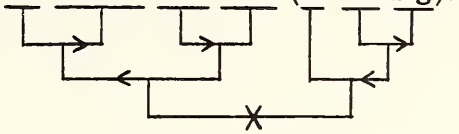
A different proposition from this (was unacceptable).



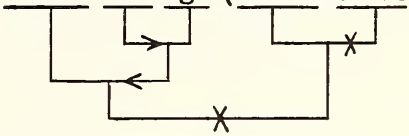
[3] Structurally these belong with Secondary Post-Determiner Attributives.

f. Noun Phrases (pp. 91-92)

An animal this size (is too big).

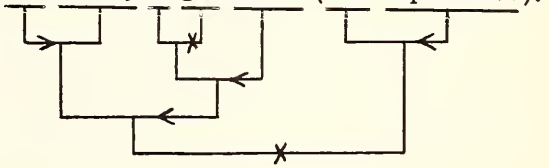


Those that age (should leave).

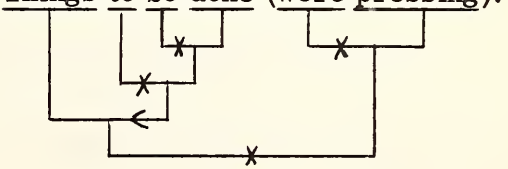


g. Marked Infinitives (pp. 92-93)

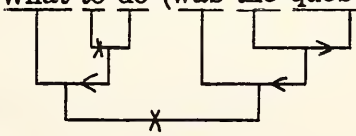
His ability to get ahead (was impressive).



Things to be done (were pressing).

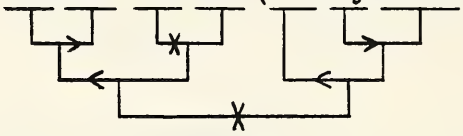


What to do (was the question).

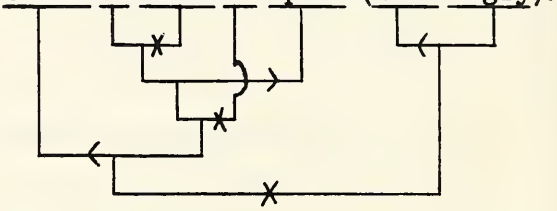


h. Clauses with Conjunctive Markers
(pp. 93-100)

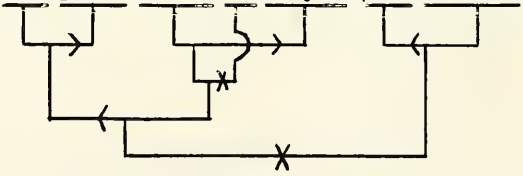
The man who left (was my friend).



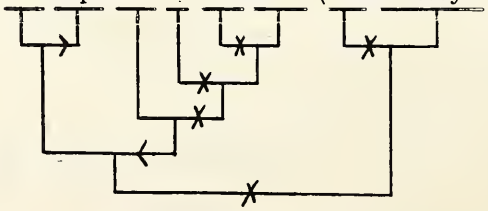
Those to whom he spoke (were angry).



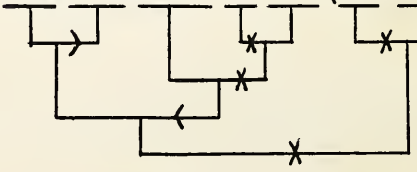
The place where he stayed (was terrible).



The hope that he will come (was destroyed).

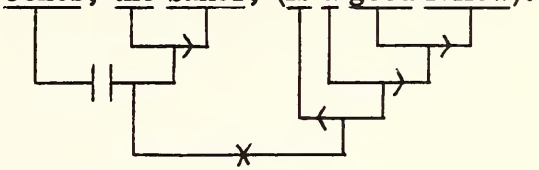


The time since he left (has dragged).

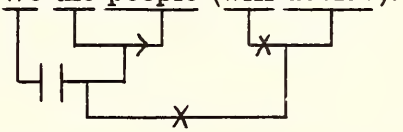


4. Appositive "Attributives" Plus Subject Heads (pp. 100-102)

Jones, the baker, (is a good fellow).

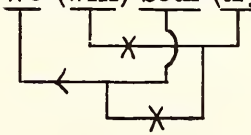


We the people (will decide).

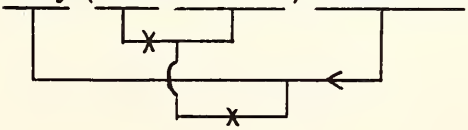


5. Semi-Predicate Attributives Plus Subject Heads (pp. 102-104)

We (will) both (try).



They (were involved) themselves.

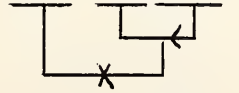


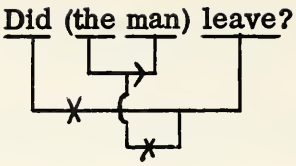
VI. Predicate Expressions (pp. 105-189)

A. Single and Multiple Frames

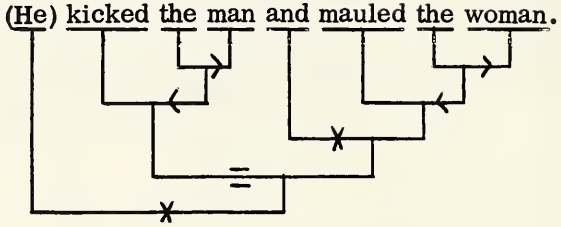
1. Single Frames (p. 107)

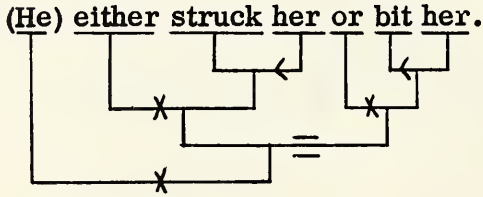
(John) ran away.





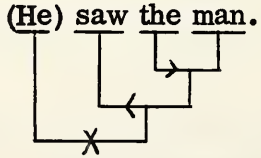
2. Multiple Frames (p. 107)



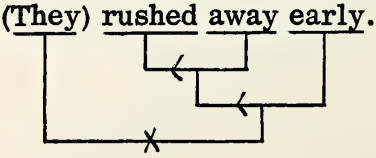


B. Types of Predicate Heads

1. Transitive Expressions (pp. 117-133)

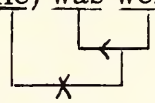


2. Intransitive Expressions (pp. 154-155)

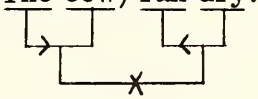


3. Equational Expressions (pp. 160-161)

(He) was well.

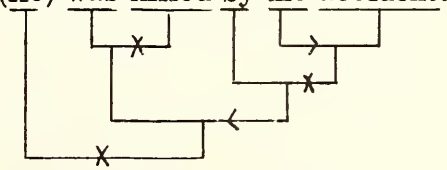


(The cow) ran dry.



4. Goal-Action (Passive) Expressions (pp. 174-185)

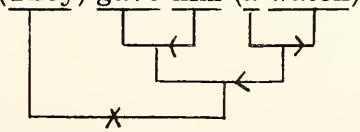
(He) was killed by the accident.



C. Transitive Expressions Classified as to Types of Attributive Constituents (pp. 113-152)

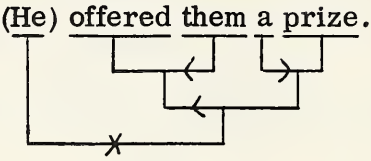
1. First Type Attributives (Indirect Object) (pp. 113-117)

(They) gave him (a watch).

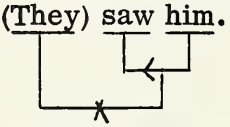


2. Second Type Attributives (Direct Object) (pp. 117-133)

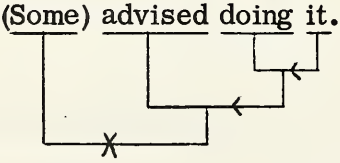
a. Nouns (pp. 117-118)



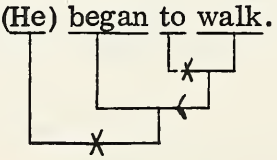
b. Substitutes (pp. 118-119)



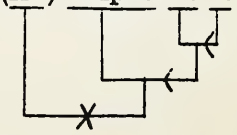
c. First Verbals (pp. 119-120)



d. Marked Infinitives (pp. 120-121)

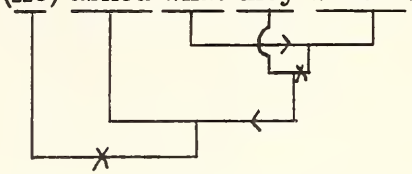


e. Unmarked Infinitives (p. 121)



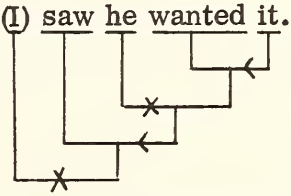
f. Clauses with Conjunctive Markers (pp. 121-123)

(He) asked what they wanted.



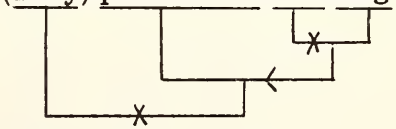
g. Clauses without Conjunctive Markers (pp. 123-125)

(I) saw he wanted it.

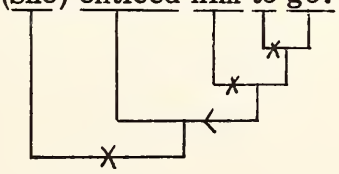


h. Dependent-Form Clauses (pp. 125-131)

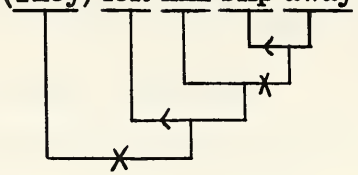
(They) pronounced him king.



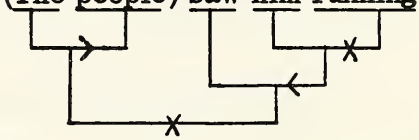
(She) enticed him to go.



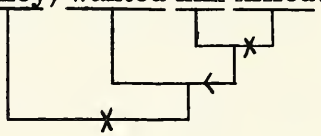
(They) felt him slip away.



(The people) saw him running.

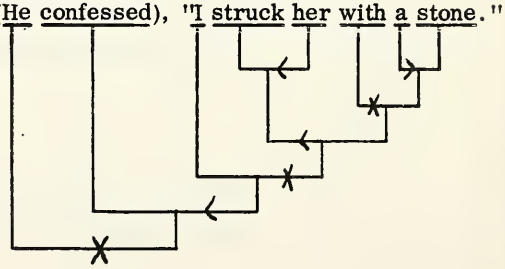


(They) wanted him killed.



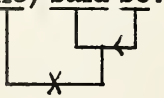
i. Direct Quotations (pp. 131-132)

(He confessed), "I struck her with a stone."

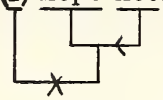


j. Adverbs (pp. 132-133)

(He) said so.

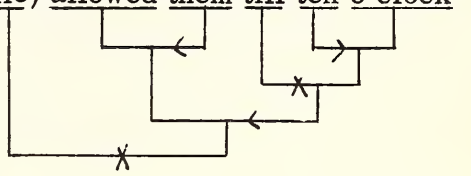


(I) hope not.



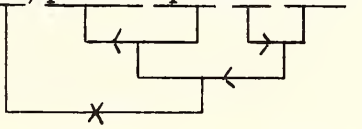
k. Prepositional Phrases (p. 133)

(He) allowed them till ten o'clock[4]

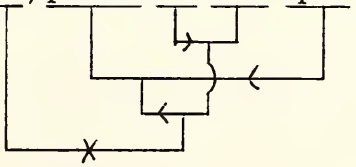


3. Alternating Attributives (pp. 133-135)

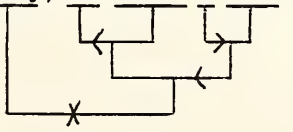
(He) pushed open the door.



(He) pushed the door open.

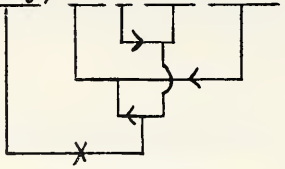


(They) let loose a lion.



[4]Compare He allowed them ten minutes.

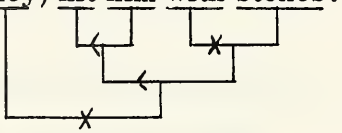
(They) let a lion loose.



4. Third Type Attributives (pp. 136-152)

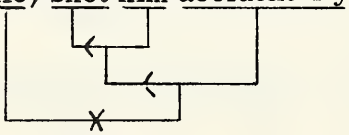
a. Prepositional Phrases (p. 136)

(They) hit him with stones.

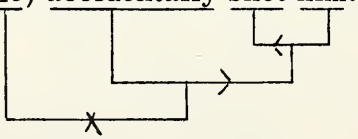


b. Adverbs (pp. 136-143)

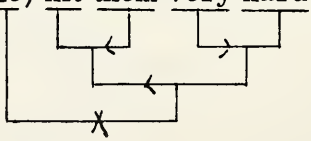
(He) shot him accidentally.



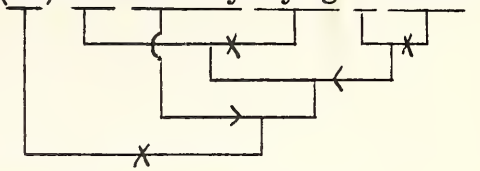
(He) accidentally shot him.



(He) hit them very hard.

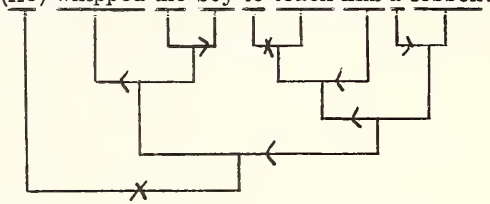


(He) was actually trying to leave.



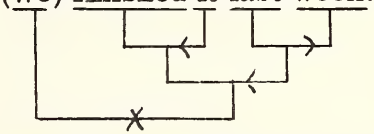
c. Marked Infinitives (p. 143)

(He) whipped the boy to teach him a lesson.

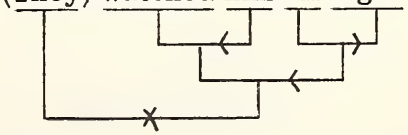


d. Noun Expressions (pp. 143-144)

(We) finished it last week.

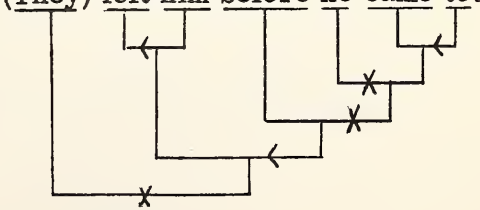


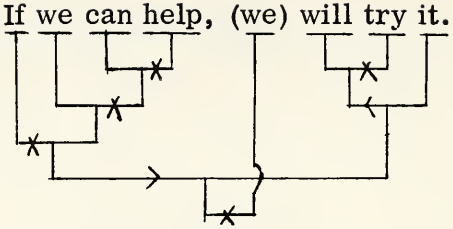
(They) watched him all night.



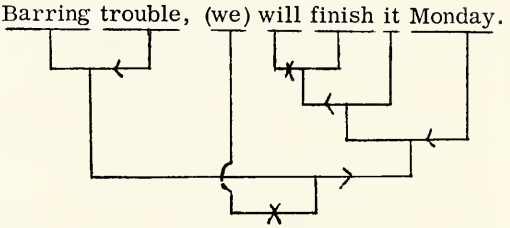
e. Clauses with Conjunctive Markers (pp. 145-149)

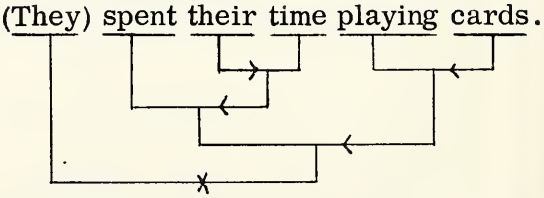
(They) left him before he came to.



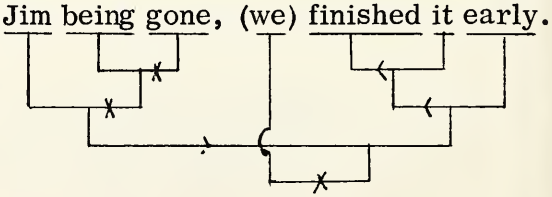


f. First Verbals (pp. 149-151)





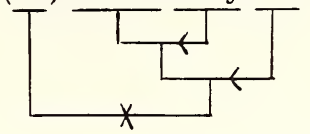
g. Dependent-Form Clauses (pp. 151-152)



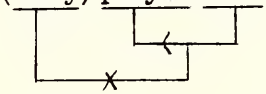
D. Intransitive Expressions Classified as to Types of Attributive Constituents (pp. 153-159)

1. Adjectives (pp. 155-156)

(He) turned away sad.

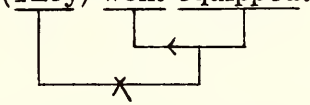


(They) played safe.



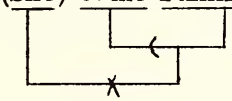
2. Second Verbals (pp. 156-157)

(They) went equipped.



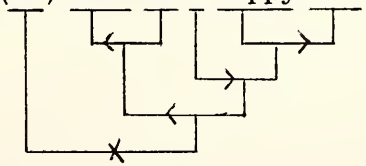
3. First Verbals (p. 157)

(She) came running.

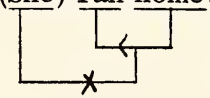


4. Noun Expressions (pp. 157-158)

(He) went off a happy man.

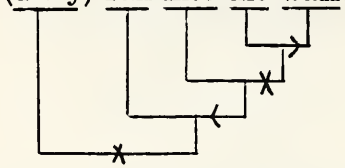


(She) ran home.



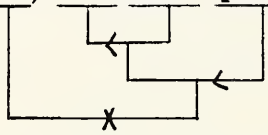
5. Prepositional Phrases (cf. p. 136)

(They) ran into the wall.



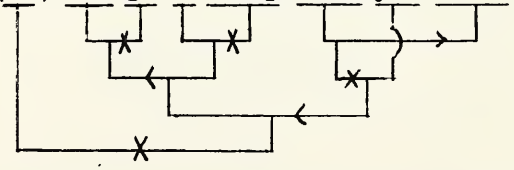
6. Adverbs (cf. pp. 136-142)

(He) went there quickly.

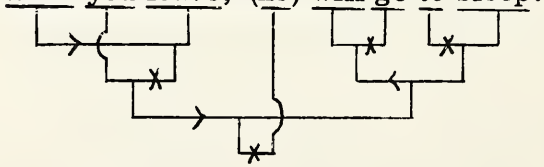


7. Clauses with Conjunctive Markers (cf. pp. 145-148)

(He) will go to sleep when you leave.

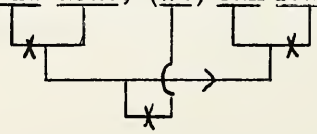


When you leave, (he) will go to sleep.



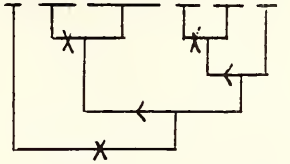
8. Dependent-Form Clauses (cf. pp. 151-152)

This done, (we) can leave.



9. Marked Infinitives (pp. 158-159)

(I) am going to do it.

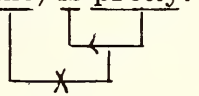


E. Equational Expressions Classified as to Types of Attributive Constituents (pp. 160-173)

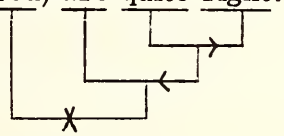
1. Equated Attributives

a. Adjectives (with various possible subordinate attributives) (pp. 162-167)

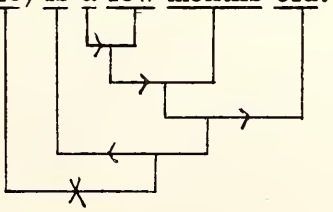
(She) is pretty.



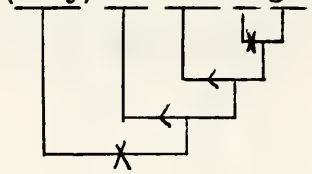
(You) are quite right.



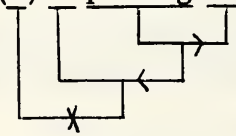
(He) is a few months old.



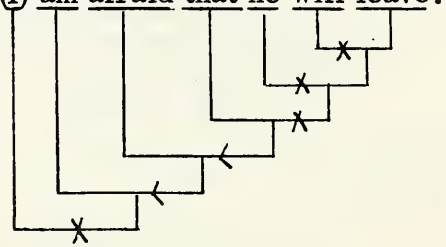
(They) are able to go.



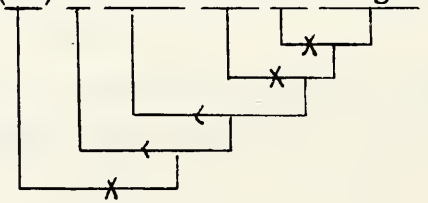
(It) is pouring wet.



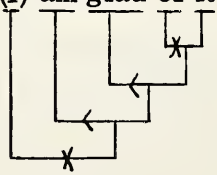
(I) am afraid that he will leave.



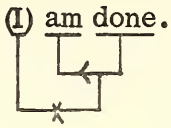
(He) is better than we thought.

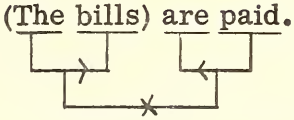


(I) am glad of it.

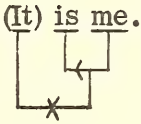


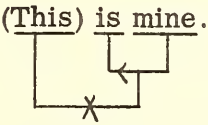
b. Second Verbals (pp. 167-168)



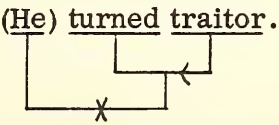


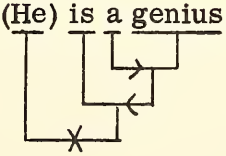
c. Substitutes (pp. 168-170)



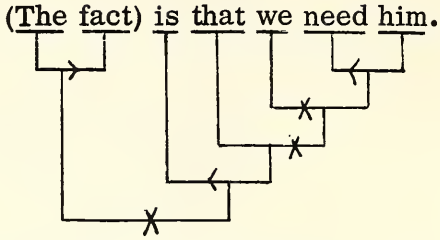


d. Noun Expressions (pp. 170-171)

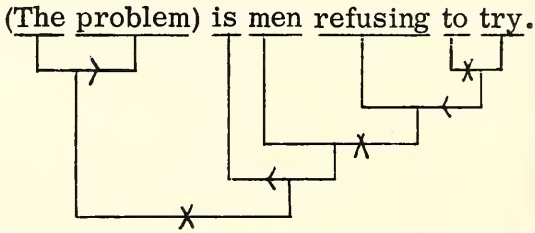




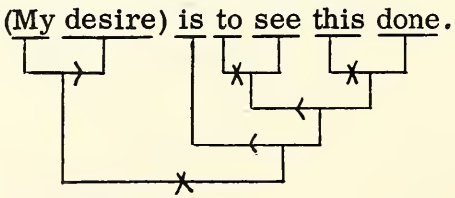
e. Clauses with Conjunctive Markers (p. 172)



f. Dependent-Form Clauses (pp. 172-173)



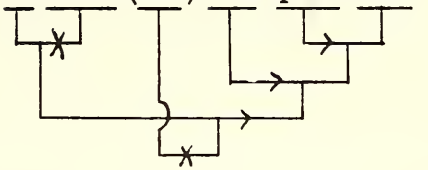
g. Marked Infinitives (p. 173)



2. Third Type Attributives (p. 173) (cf. Third Type Attributives under Transitive Expressions)

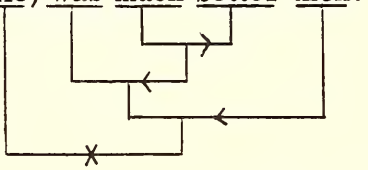
a. Prepositional Phrases (cf. p. 136)

At home (she) was quite well.



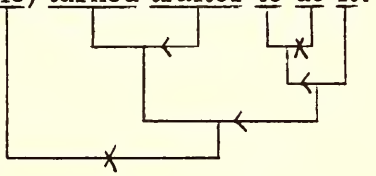
b. Adverbs (cf. pp. 136-143)

(He) was much better then.



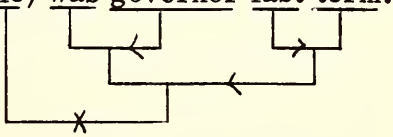
c. Marked Infinitives (cf. p. 152)

(He) turned traitor to do it.

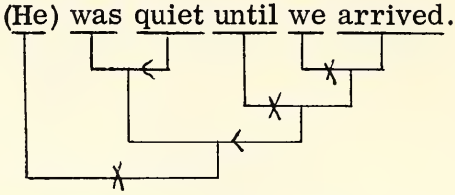


d. Noun Expressions (cf. pp. 143-144)

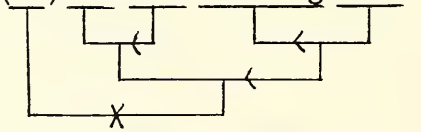
(He) was governor last term.



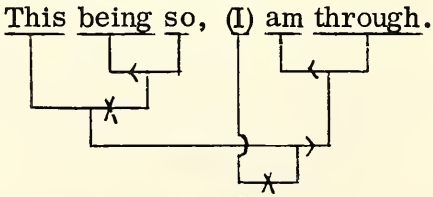
e. Clauses with Conjunctive Markers (cf. pp. 145-149)



f. First Verbals (cf. pp. 149-151)



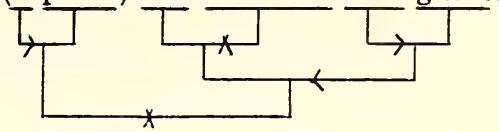
g. Dependent-Form Clauses (cf. pp. 151-152)



F. Passive (Goal-Action) Expressions Classified as to Types of Attributive Constituents (pp. 174-185)

1. First Attributives (p. 175) (cf. First Attributives in Transitive Expressions, pp. 113-117)

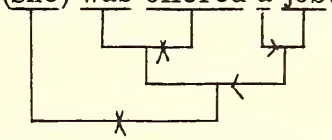
(A place) was accorded each guest.



< (They) accorded each guest a place.

2. Second Attributives (pp. 176-179)
(cf. Second Attributives in Transitive Expressions, pp. 117-133)

(She) was offered a job.

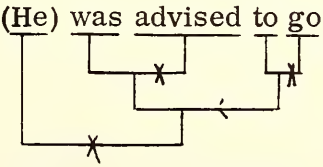


< (They) offered her a job.

3. Partial Second Attributives (derived from Dependent-Form Clauses) (pp. 177-179)

a. Marked Infinitives (pp. 177-178)

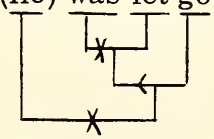
(He) was advised to go.



< (They) advised him to go.

b. Unmarked Infinitives (p. 178)

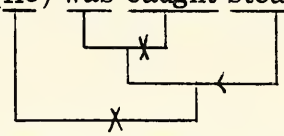
(He) was let go.



< (They) let him go.

c. First Verbals (p. 178)

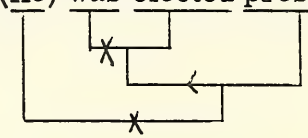
(He) was caught stealing.



< (They) caught him stealing.

d. Zero Verb Head (p. 179)

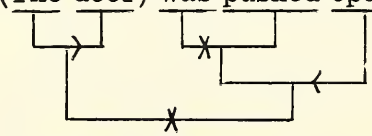
(He) was elected president.



< (They) elected him president.

4. Alternating Attributives (p. 180)

(The door) was pushed open.

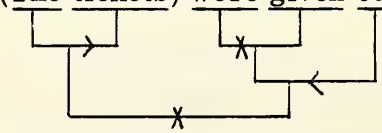


< (They) pushed the door open.

or

< (They) pushed open the door.

(The tickets) were given out.



< (They) gave the tickets out.

or

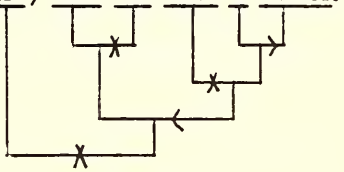
< (They) gave out the tickets.

5. Third Type Attributives (pp. 180-185)
(cf. Third Type Attributives in Transitive Expressions, pp. 136-152)

a. Prepositional Phrases

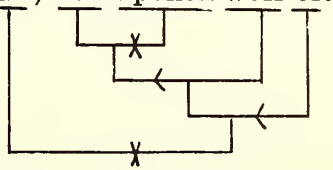
1'. Complete (cf. p. 136)

(He) was hit with a stick.



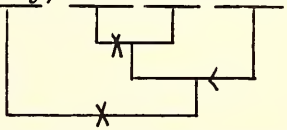
2'. Partial (with Zero Anaphoric Substitution of the "axis" Element) (pp. 180-185)

(He) was spoken well of.



< (They) spoke well of him

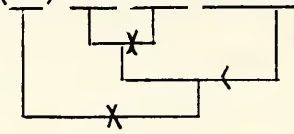
(They) were lied about.



< (They) lied about them.

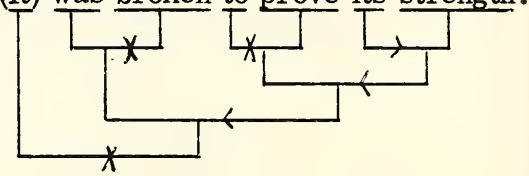
b. Adverbs (cf. pp. 136-142)

(He) was hurt accidentally.



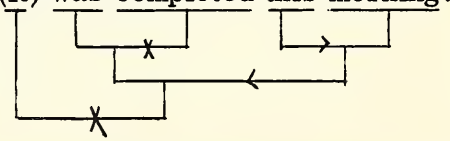
c. Marked Infinitives (cf. p. 152)

(It) was broken to prove its strength.



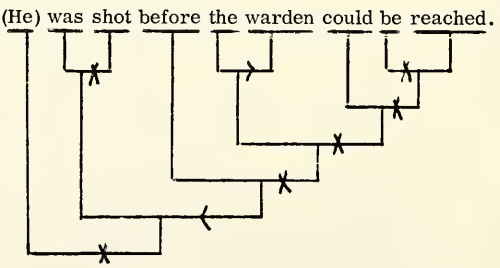
d. Noun Expressions (cf. pp. 143-144)

(It) was completed this morning.



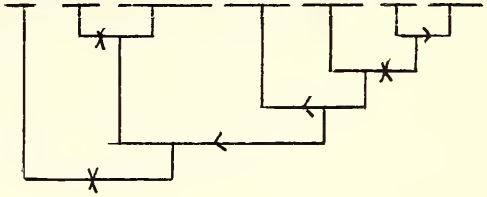
e. Clauses with Conjunctive Markers (cf. pp. 145-149)

(He) was shot before the warden could be reached.



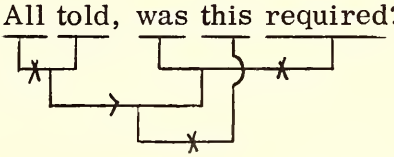
f. First Verbals (cf. pp. 149-151)

(He) was waylaid going along the trail.



g. Dependent-Form Clauses (cf. pp. 151-152)

All told, was this required?

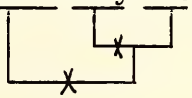


VII. Dependent Exocentric Constructions

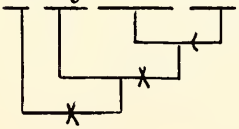
A. Independent-Form Clauses with Conjunctive Markers (pp. 190-196)

1. Clauses in Which the Conjunctive Marker Constitutes the First Immediate Constituent in Exocentric Relationship to the Following Subject-Predicate Construction (pp. 190-194)

before they left



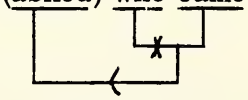
if any asked him



2. Clauses in Which the Conjunctive Marker Constitutes a Part of the Subject-Predicate Construction (pp. 194-196)

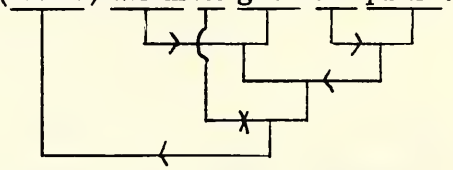
   a. As Subject (pp. 194-195)

(asked) who came.



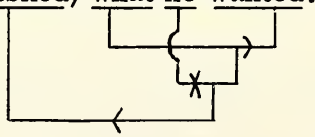
   b. As First Type Attributive (p. 195)

(asked) whom he gave the prize.



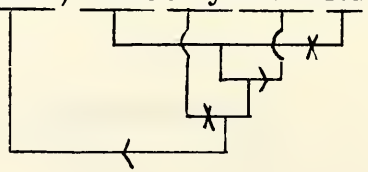
   c. As Second Type Attributives (p. 195)

(asked) what he wanted.



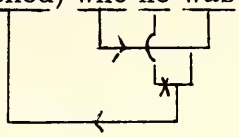
   d. As Second Immediate Constituents in Prepositional Phrases (p. 195)

(asked) whom they cared for



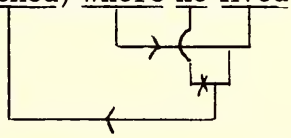
e. As Equated Attributives (p. 196)

(asked) who he was



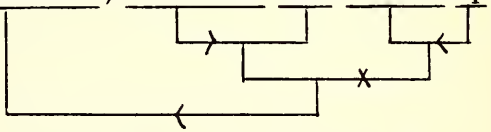
f. As Third Type Attributive (p. 196)

(asked) where he lived



g. As Determiners (p. 196)

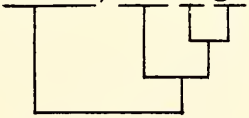
(questioned) whichever man showed up



B. Dependent-Form Clauses Classified as to the Types of Predicate Constituents (pp. 196-198)

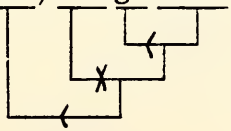
1. Marked Infinitives (p. 197)

(wanted) him to go

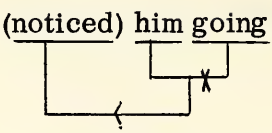


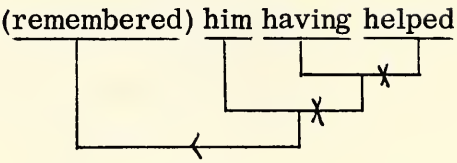
2. Unmarked Infinitives (pp. 197-198)

(saw) him go home

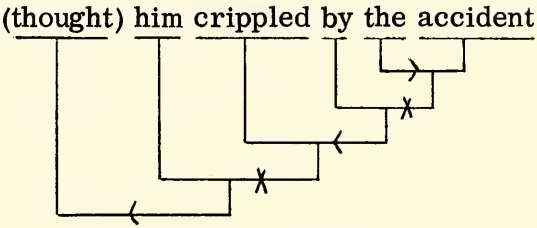


3. First Verbals (p. 198)

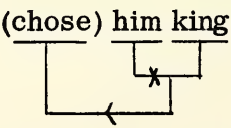




4. Second Verbals (p. 198)



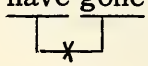
5. Zero Verb Heads (p. 198)



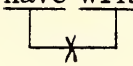
C. Verb Phrases (pp. 199-202)

1. Primary Patterns

a. Pattern 1 (p. 200)



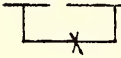
have written



b. Pattern 2 (p. 200)

is working

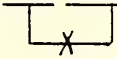
was swimming



c. Pattern 3 (p. 200)

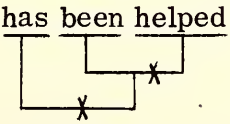
is kicked

was tortured



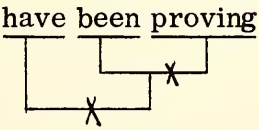
d. Pattern 4 (p. 200)

has been helped



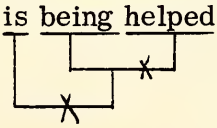
e. Pattern 5 (p. 200)

have been proving



f. Pattern 6 (p. 201)

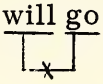
is being helped



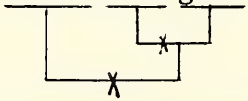
2. Secondary Patterns, Consisting of Auxiliaries Plus Certain Verb Forms, Single and Phrasal (pp. 201-202)

a. With will, shall, may, can, and must

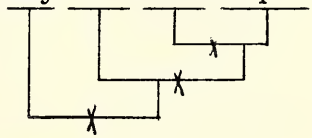
will go



should have gone

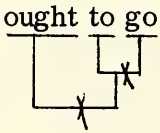


may have been helped

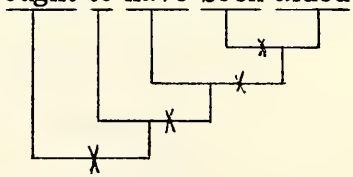


b. With ought

ought to go



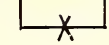
ought to have been aided



c. With do

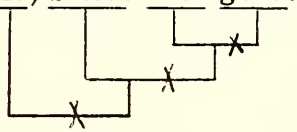
do go

did return

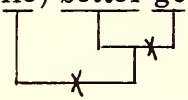


d. With better (and in rare constructions rather and sooner)

(He) better have gone.



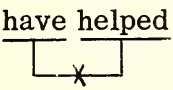
(He) better go.



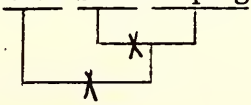
D. Infinitive Phrases (pp. 202-203)

1. Unmarked (cf. Verb Phrase Patterns 1-5)

have helped

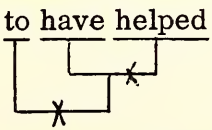


have been helping

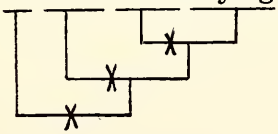


2. Marked

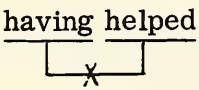
to have helped

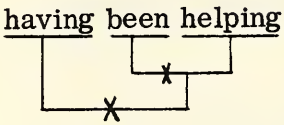


to have been trying



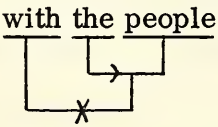
E. Verbal Phrases (p. 203) (cf. Verb Phrase Patterns 1, 3-5)

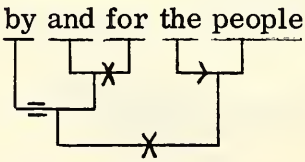




F. Prepositional Phrases (pp. 204-213)

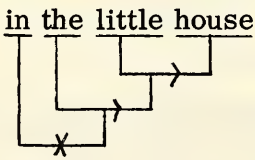
1. Single and Multiple Types (pp. 204-206)



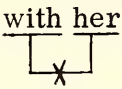


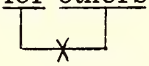
2. Classes of Second Immediate Constituents (pp. 206-212)

a. Noun Expressions (p. 207)

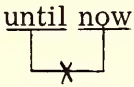


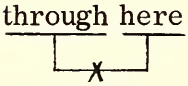
b. Substitutes (p. 207)



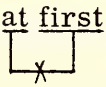


c. Adverbs (p. 207)

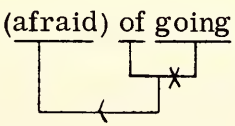


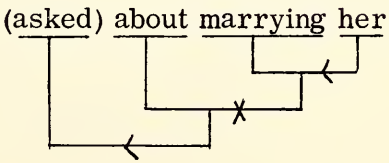


d. Adjectives (pp. 207-208)



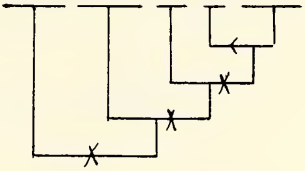
e. First Verbals (p. 208)



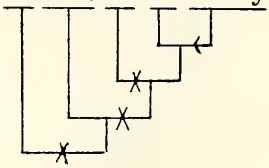


f. Clauses with Conjunctive Markers (pp. 208-209)

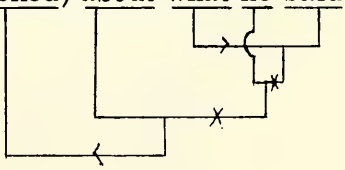
until after he is dead



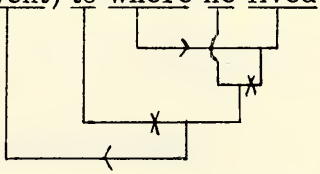
in that he is crazy



(asked) about what he said

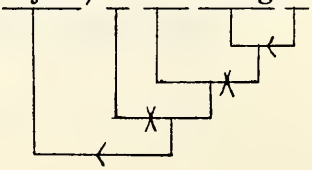


(went) to where he lived

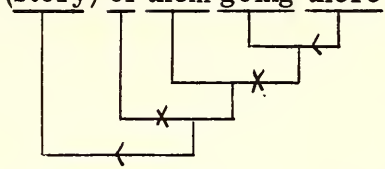


g. Dependent-Form Clauses (pp. 209-212)

(object) to him doing it

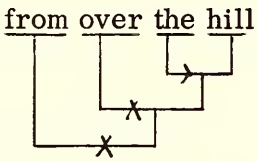


(story) of them going there

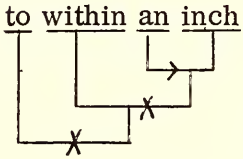


h. Prepositional Phrases (pp. 212-213)

from over the hill

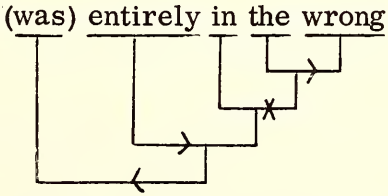


to within an inch

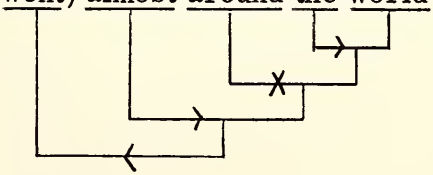


3. Constructions Consisting of Prepositional Phrases plus Attributives (pp. 212-213)

(was) entirely in the wrong



(went) almost around the world



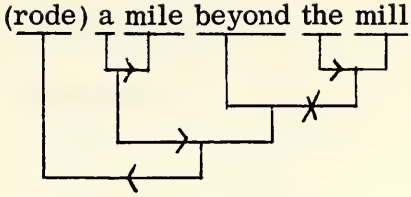

(rode) a mile beyond the mill

Table of Contents

Page

Preface. iii

Outline of Structures. xi

Guide to the Relationship between Chapter Headings and Main Outline lxi

Guide to the Outline of the Text lxiii

Outline of English Syntax lxiii

Chapter

I. Introduction 1

II. Criticism of Former Treatments of English Syntax 12

III. Subject Expressions in Independent Transitive Clauses 40

IV. Predicate Expressions in Independent Transitive Clauses 105

V. Independent Intransitive Clause Types 153

VI. Independent Equational Clause Types 160

VII. Independent Goal-Action Clause Types 174

VIII. Attributives to Clauses 186

IX. Dependent Exocentric Patterns 190

X. Multiple Clause Frames. 214

Page

XI. Minor Sentence Types. 216

XII. Summary. 220

Bibliography 225

Guide to The Relationship between Chapter Headings and Main Outline

	Page
I. Major Sentence Types . . . . . .1.	40
A. Single Clause Frame 1a	40
1. Independent Exocentric Patterns. . .1a1. . . .	40
a. Clauses as Heads . . . . . .1a1a . . .	40
(1) Actor-Action Clause Types . .1a1a1. . .	40
(a) Transitive Clause Types. .1a1a1a . .	40
1'. Subject Expressions . .1a1a1a1. .	40
2'. Predicate Expressions .1a1a1a2. .105	
(b) Intransitive Clause Types .1a1a1b . .153	
(c) Equational Clause Types. .1a1a1c . .160	
(2) Goal-Action Clause Types. . .1a1a2. . .174	
b. Attributives to Clauses . . . . .1a1b . . .186	
2. Dependent Exocentric Patterns . . .1a2. . . .190	
B. Multiple Clause Frames. 1b 214	
II. Minor Sentence Types 2. 216	
A. Completive Types. 2a 216	

Page

B. Exclamatory Types 2b 216

C. Aphoristic Types. 2c 219

The position of the three dichotomies namely, (1) single clause frame--multiple clause frame, (2) independent exocentric constituents--dependent exocentric constituents, and (3) clauses as heads--attributives to clauses, is dictated purely by practical considerations of grouping together all the information relative to multiple clause frames, dependent exocentric constituents, and the attributives to clauses since these sections of the grammar are identical for all major sentence types. Technically these sections should be considered underneath the major sentence types, namely actor-action and goal-action with appropriate cross-reference to note range of possibilities and occurrences. The arrangement of these three dichotomies in this outline is purely for the convenience of the reader.

Guide to The Outline of The Text

The following brief outline of the principal sections of the grammar is given so as to aid the reader in following the major patterns and to permit ready reference to any large section. Only the beginning page of each section is indicated. Certain sections of the main text which indicate relationship of taxemes or conditioning factors are omitted from the brief outline below. Only those sections showing constituent elements are included here, but the section headings are the same as those in the complete main outline which is found in the text of the grammar itself.

Outline of English Syntax

Page

1. Major sentence types 40

1a Single clause frame 40

a1 Independent exocentric patterns 40

1a Clauses as heads 40

a1 Actor-action clause types 40

1a Transitive clause types 40

a1 Subject expressions 40

1a2b1 Substantives. 42

1a2b2 Substitutes 45

1a2b3 Clauses. 54

1a2b4 1st verbals 55

1a2b5 Marked infinitives 56

1a2b6 Prepositional phrases 56

Page

1a1a1a1b Attributives to subject head 58

b1 Bounded. 58

1a Post-determiner. 58

a1 Primary. 58

a2 Secondary. 69

a3 Tertiary 73

1b Determiners 75

1c Pre-determiner attributives 81

b2 Pre-posed attributives to substitute subject-heads 85

b3 Post-posed attributives 88

3b1 Adjectives. 88

3b2 Adverbs. 89

3b3 1st verbals 89

3b4 2nd verbals 90

3b5 Prepositional phrases 90

3b6 Substantive phrases 91

3b7 Marked infinitives 92

3b8 Clauses. 93

b4 Appositives 100

b5 Semi-predicate attributives 102

1a1a1a2 Predicate expression. 105

2a Verb-head 105

Page

1a1a1a2a1 Order. 105

a2 Selection 106

2b1 Inter-class 108

2b2 Intra-class 108

2b Attributives to the verb-head 113

b1 1st type attributive. 113

b2 2nd type attributive 117

2b2a Substantives 118

2b2b Substitutes 118

2b2c 1st verbals 119

2b2d Infinitives 120

2b2e Clauses with conjunctive marker 121

2b2f Dependent form clauses 125

2b2g Expressions of direct quotation 131

2b2h Adverbs 132

2b2i Prepositional phrases 133

b3 Alternating attributives. 134

b4 3rd type attributives 136

4a Prepositional phrases 136

4b Adverbs 136

4c Substantives 143

4d Clauses marked by conjunctions 145

4e 1st verbals. 149

Page

1a1a1a2b4f 2nd verbals. 151

4g Adjective phrases. 151

4h Dependent-form clauses 151

4i Marked infinitives. 152

1a1a1b Intransitive clause types 153

b1 Subject expression 153

b2 Predicate expression. 154

2a Verb-head 154

2b Attributives to the verb-head 155

1a1a1c Equational clause types 160

c1 Subject expression 160

c2 Predicate expression. 160

2a Verb-head 160

2b Attributives to verb-head. 162

b1 Equated attributives 162

1a Adjectives 162

1b 2nd verbals. 167

1c Substitutes 168

1d Substantives 170

1e Clauses 172

1f Marked infinitives. 173

b2 3rd attributives 173

Page

1a1a2 Goal-action clause types 174
2a Subject expression 174
2b Predicate expression 174
b1 Verb-head 174
b2 Attributives to verb-head 175
2a 1st attributives 175
2b 2nd attributives 176
2c Alternating attributives 180
2d 3rd attributives 180
1a1b Attributives to clauses 186
b1 Non-parenthetical 186
b2 Parenthetical 188
1a2 Dependent exocentric patterns 190
2a Independent-form clauses marked by conjunctions . . 190
2b Dependent-form clauses 196
2c Verb phrases 199
2d Infinitives 202
2e Verbals 203
2f Prepositional phrases 204
1b Multiple clause frames 214
2 Minor sentence types 216
2a Completive type 216

Page

2b Exclamatory type 216

b1 Interjections. 217

b2 With verb-head in the predicate 217

b3 Expressions not containing verbs 219

2c Aphoristic expressions 219

I.

Introduction

The purpose of this analysis of English syntax is to demonstrate the application of descriptive techniques to the problems of syntax in the writer's own native speech and give a method of presentation by outline form so as to show the broad patterns in the language and by such to indicate the tagmeme structure as based on the taxemes of order, selection, modulation, and phonetic change. In contrast to the conventional procedure which tends to analyse forms on a morphological basis and then notes all the positions and types of occurrence for such elements, this description analyzes the frames and patterns of English expressions and notes those forms and function classes which may occur in the various sections of such patterns.

This particular study arose out of (1) special interest in studying syntactic principles in application to the analysis of syntax of aboriginal languages, and (2) the analysis of a special problem of pluralization in English. The inadequacy of former treatments of English was obvious.[1] This was due principally to a failure to recognize broad patterns and to break these down on the basis of immediate constituents. Accordingly the writer proceeded on the basis of the

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[1] See below pp. 12 ff.

taxemes as outlined by Bloomfield[2] to set down the principal tagmemes in his own speech. When these were analyzed and correlated, they amounted to a statement of about fifty pages. This introductory survey stimulated interest in further elaboration and extension. The next step in procedure consisted in analyzing the treatments of English in the various books and articles listed in the bibliography with a purpose to check for rare patterns, to compile lists of words, to note special selective conditioning, and to analyze the various authors' statements of the episememes of certain complicated tagmemes. The last stage in the procedure was the incorporation of all this material into the outline of the original statement of the major patterns.

It must be noted that no lists of words were taken in toto from any grammatical analysis. All words were checked by the writer's own usage, so that the lists included in the following description are usually a combination of lists gathered from many sources, with many words rejected as not fitting the writer's usage and others added which were employed in particular functions. Great caution was employed in the checking of usage, for only a few words at any time for any one pattern would be validated, and these were always rechecked three times. This was to avoid the psychological pressure of any particular pattern which is greatly increased by lengthy repetitions.

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[2] Leonard Bloomfield, Language. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1933.

It should be born in mind that this analysis is a statement of only the writer's speech. In other words the writer acted as his own informant. There are always dangers from non-written sources, but insofar as humanly possible such dangers have been scrupulously avoided and experience with a number of informants of aboriginal languages has given the writer a certain amount of practice in such situations. However, what one loses in exactness by not having written sources to refer to would seem to be compensated for by unity of dialect and the avoidance of introducing patterns representing too broad a span in years. Such comparative and historical tendencies are all too frequent in the conventional grammars. Since then the writer acted as his own informant, it may not be out of the way to state something as to his background as a basis for determination of his dialectic peculiarities. He was born of professional parents in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, and lived and was educated in urban communities of the West, principally in California where he received his A.B. in Greek from U.C.L.A. Following this he engaged in linguistic work in Mexico and completed his A.M. in Greek at the University of Southern California. Since 1939 he has travelled rather widely over the United States studying, teaching, lecturing, and preaching. Such dialect background should be considered in the case of wide divergencies from what may be judged as the more common norm.

In any statement of the syntax of English of the size which such a treatment as this is, there must necessarily be certain definite limitations. First, the lack of a section on morphology which would set forth the form classes of the language makes many state-

ments incomplete, for constant cross-reference to show relationship between "form classes" and "function classes" is quite necessary. Moreover, the syntactic description is often dependent upon the morphological one, particularly with regard to the use of zero and the arrangement of morphemes into categories.

It is inevitable that a description of English of this size should have considerable lack of completeness in detail. A comprehensive description would demand a statement of several thousand pages. But rather than take one small section and develop this to a degree of completeness, the writer has chosen to sacrifice considerably in admitting recognized gaps in the work in order to indicate the adaptability of the techniques to the broad patterns and to set forth the framework of English by a method which can be filled in by continuing research. The writer has thus attempted to avoid the specialization with some particular small pattern, for it is the overemphasis of this procedure which in many ways has hampered the development of a general methodology for syntax. The writer wishes to point out that many statements relative to selective conditioning are limited in character. For example, the general statement relative to sequence of tenses between main and subordinate clause verbs may be expanded considerably, and the particular deviations for special types of clauses should be noted. Likewise the statements for adverbial attributives may be very much enlarged.

In the matter of modulation the writer has only indicated special modulatory patterns of particular note, and has made no attempt at a complete statement. This is a study of considerable extent in itself. All in-

tonemes and stressemes must be described in a phonology and morphology before they can adequately be handled in the syntax. All this the writer is not in a position to do in such a treatment as this. Reference should be made, however, to Pike's introductory treatment of intonation in English.[3] This is by far the best analysis of English intonation so far published and brings some order out of the former chaotic handling of the problem. Much of the apparatus of terminology employed here is taken from Pike's suggestions.

Also in the matter of phonetic change the writer has made no attempt to make a detailed statement. Only the more obvious situations are dealt with. Since, however, all sandhi in English is either automatic or optional, the tagmemes are not determined by sandhi, and this taxeme is thus relatively less important than the other three. In all statements of sandhi in English the matter of relative speed is most important, and this whole problem is omitted. However, in both the matter of phonetic change and modulation, additions may readily be made to the outline, for these taxemes are always correlative with the taxemes of order and selection.

In the analysis of anaphoric substitutes and particularly with zero anaphoric substitutes there are considerable omissions of detail. The possibilities of form are usually noted, but the contextual situations, or in other words, the patterns in which these occur are not fully stated. This is one of the very consid-

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[3] Kenneth L. Pike, An Intensive Course in English for Latin American Students, Vol. 1, Pronunciation. Ann Arbor, Michigan: English Language Institute, 1942.

erable problems in English syntax and could not be treated with any degree of completeness in such a description of this length.

Other than those difficulties imposed by the necessary limitations of the work and that of the use of oneself as informant, are those of terminology. This problem is very real, for it is bound up with the entire history of the apparatus of grammatical description and it involves the ever complicated problem of naming. The Greek and Latin terminology as applied to those languages fit rather well, for there was a rather good correspondence between the "form classes" and the "function classes". By this the writer means that the classes on the morphological level corresponded rather well with the classes on the syntactic level. But this is not the case in such a language as English. One has to appreciate the two levels of analysis. The lengthy arguments as to whether a noun becomes an adjective when it is pre-posed to another noun, as in a cement structure, are meaningless, until one recognizes the two levels of distinction. There is then a need for a new set of terms for English, one which will apply to the syntax. This is not to be solved by the multiplication of terms to define some form in different functional values as the words gerund, gerundive, participle, verbal, and supine are sometimes employed to denote the same form class. This procedure would only add confusion. One must have general terms applicable to all classes employed in particular patterns. In order to meet this need the writer has made certain arbitrary uses of words. He recognizes that many of these are not entirely satisfactory, for they have strong connotative values

which are hard to dissociate in a new usage, but it is impossible to use numbers and letters as designations throughout, and words with a certain amount of mnemonic value must be employed, even with the danger of a wrong connotation or even denotation. The writer asks the indulgence of the reader in recognizing the particular value as assigned to the words in this description. Any recommendation of a term to supplant a less fortunate choice will be gladly accepted, for "a rose by any other name would smell as sweet." It makes little difference what term is used. The important feature is the recognition of the particular classes so designated.

The word attributive is used to designate any endocentric function class. These endocentric classes are sometimes named by their position, e.g. attributives to the subject-heads, or by order, e.g. the attributives to the verb-heads. The reason for designating indirect object, direct objects, and adverbial modifiers as all attributives is simply to note that they are all endocentric to the verb-head.

For subject expressions one of the necessary distinctions is between those words which pattern with determiners and those which do not. The first permit bounded attributives, and those without determiners do not have these. Arbitrarily the word substantive is employed to designate this first class, largely because this class is composed to a great extent of nouns, though it also includes adjectives, verbals, and some so-called pronouns. The term substitute is employed for the second main group because of the substitution character of the constitutents. Any special meaning attached to any term is usually explained

in a foot-note, or may be noted readily by the illustrations of the class.

Before making a brief statement of the outline, it may be well to note some details in the method of presentation. Headings of the sections are made on the basis of the episememes of the tagmemes so designated, but it is impossible to carry out such naming throughout, for such episememes are in some instances almost impossible to define. The purpose of the outline which makes use of alternating numbers and letters, and thus makes possible a considerable depth in sub-heads, is to indicate the major patterns and the conditioning factors and at the same time by indicating corresponding sections, thus to note series of coordinates and immediate constituents. For example, under the transitive clause type is listed the subject expression and corresponding to this is the predicate expression, these being the two immediate constituents of such an actor-action tagmeme. The same situation applies to the analysis of prepositional phrases, marked clauses, etc., as listed in the section on dependent exocentric patterns. Also by the outline method one may indicate the successive layers of immediate constituents.

The full numbering of the section of the outline is made for the first section of each page and is repeated whenever the outline shifts front more than two orders.

It will be noted that the first occurrence of a pattern is described in some detail, but that whenever further mention must be made of such a pattern, even with some modification, only cross-reference is given. As for example, in noting substantive 'object'

expressions, these are stated as being the same as substantive subject expressions with the restriction of possible attributives.

Some reference must also be made to the section on dependent exocentric patterns. As a convenience in presentation and in order to avoid repetitious statements the analysis of dependent exocentric patterns is made a special section. All endocentric patterns are dealt with under the major exocentric patterns, first by analyzing the head of such an endocentric pattern and then the attributives dependent upon it. Exocentric patterns could similarly be handled by analyzing the first and then the second immediate constituents, but for the convenience of noting more easily the broader patterns, the detailed analysis of such dependent exocentric patterns is treated in a single section. Such treatment has the added value of reducing the number of explanatory footnotes.

Lists are only alphabetized when they are comparatively long and when groupings of words would not have any significance in indicating subordinate form or function classes.

As will be noted from the first page of the brief outline, which lists the major dichotomies, the analysis is divided between major and minor sentence types, then between independent and dependent exocentric patterns, which is only a convenience of presentation, as just stated. The independent exocentric patterns are then divided between actor-action and goal-action types. The actor-action clause type includes the transitive, the intransitive, and the equational. Under the transitive clause type, the subject expression is discussed first, as being the first im-

mediate constituent in the exocentric pattern. The procedure is to note all possible subject-heads, and then all types of attributives which may occur with each type. For the substantive head, for example, there are bounded attributives, pre-posed attributives, post-posed attributives, and appositives. Under each type, which in this case is named from its position relative to the head, is included each function class which operates in any such position. The sentence may be visualized as a framework having certain compartments into which various classes of words may fit. The mutual order and selective conditioning must be stated, and in addition the phonetic modification and modulation occurring between such classes. One may also look upon any utterance as consisting of a great series of selections, if viewed only from the standpoint of the taxeme of selection, and then each section of the outline represents such choices. For example, a person may choose to convey his thought by a major or a minor sentence type. Then in turn he has the choice of an actor-action or a goal-action type. If he chooses the former, he must then choose between transitive, intransitive, or equational types. Having made this choice, he must then choose a subject-head class, and with this come further restrictions as to the possible attributives to the subject expression. Accordingly, as the outline proceeds in depth, the range of choices becomes less. It is this selective basis which is best demonstrated by the outline form. As in the sequence just noted, having chosen a subject expression and determined upon a transitive type verb-head expression, the inter-class selection, which implies a selection between function classes of the same

coordinate value, restricts these verbs to transitive ones, in contrast to intransitive or equational ones, while the intra-class selection, which denotes selections of forms within a class which are selectively determined or conditioned, restricts certain choices of the forms of the verbs so as to be in congruence with subject expressions of person and number. Having listed the verb-head expression, then the various attributives to this must be noted; the first type attributive, which corresponds to what has been in most cases called the indirect object, the second type attributive, which corresponds to the direct object, the alternating attributives, and finally the third attributives, which are generally known as the adverbial attributives. In a similar manner the intransitive and equational clause types are treated, and then the goal-action types, and finally the minor syentence types, but in all cases where the pattern is identical to one already presented, only a mention of the similarity and a cross-reference is made.

II.

Criticism of Former Treatments of English Syntax

A criticism of former treatments of English syntax may be made from three standpoints: (1) what linguists have failed to do in descriptive analysis of English, (2) what they have done which is wrong, and (3) what significant contributions they have made in the field. Under the first class will be cited those features of the descriptive technique which have only comparatively recently been called to the attention of linguists by such men as Sapir and Bloomfield. In the second class will be classed those features which arise from a faulty analysis of the materials themselves. In the last will be considered the valuable contributions in the field of descriptive techniques both in general linguistics and with regard to English particularly.

One of the most fundamental difficulties in the descriptive analysis of English has been the failure to recognize the larger patterns. The normal practice has been to take the various parts of speech and indicate all the various constructions into which they may fit. This has given rise to the impression of the rather amorphous character of English grammar. On the other hand the important thing for English grammar is a study of the large patterns and the classification of structure and function classes which may

fit into these patterns. Maetzner[1] makes practically no reference to these larger patterns and sentence types. Kellner[2] anticipated in a measure the importance of these larger syntactic units but does not consistently carry out the implications of his syntactic divisions. Neither Poutsma[3] nor Kruisinga[4] gives any more than a brief sketch of the sentence as a unit. They start from the particulars and work toward the larger units but do not synthesize the approach. Jespersen[5] is really the first to approach the problems of the larger patterns in a serious way. The difficulty in his approach is (1) the manner of classification[6] which is based on a semantic rather than a formal relationship between constituents, and (2) the interpretation of the difference between morphology and syntax, as an inner and an outer approach.[7]

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[1] E. Maetzner, An English Grammar. London: John Murray, 1874.

[2] Leon Kellner, Historical Outlines of English Syntax. London: MacMillan and Company, 1892, pp. 1 ff.

[3] H. Poutsma, A Grammar of Late Modern English. Groningen: P. Noordhoff, 1914.

[4] E. Kruisinga, A Handbook of Present-day English. Utrecht: Kemink en Zoon, 1917.

[5] Otto Jespersen, Analytic Syntax. London: George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., 1937.

[6] Otto Jespersen, A Modern English Grammar. Heidelberg: Carl Winters Universitätsbuchhandlung, 1928, Vol. II, pp. 212-218.

[7] Ibid.

The making of an attributive barking in the barking dog of the same rank as barks in the dog barks because of the parallelism in meaning value does not account for the difference in endocentric and exocentric constructions which Bloomfield so adequately demonstrates.[8] Palmer[9] appreciates the significance of the larger patterns but unfortunately adopts a notional rather than formal method of classification.

The failure to recognize the larger patterns and tagmemes in the language is accompanied by a similar failure to recognize the importance of the taxemes of order, modulation, selection, and phonetic change.[10] In no grammar of English are these four principles consistently recognized. These taxemes of classification are sometimes recognized but are usually discussed apart from the regular grammatical presentation, rather than being incorporated into the very substance of the description. At no point in the description may these taxemes be overlooked, for in every tagmeme in English there are at least two taxemes, which are highly significant. That is to say, every meaningful grammatical pattern or construction has at least two of these classificatory principles which must be dealt with.

Commonly the subject of word order is either taken for granted or at best some one chapter may be devoted

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[8] Leonard Bloomfield, Language. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1933, pp. 194 ff.

[9] H. E. Palmer, A Grammar of Spoken English. Cambridge: W. Heffer and Sons, Ltd., 1927

[10] L. Bloomfield, op. cit., pp. 163 ff.

to it as with Maetzner,[11] Poutsma,[12] Kruisinga,[13] Krüger,[14] Curme,[15] and Vechtman-Vecht.[16] However, the analysis of word order contained in such special discussions is largely that which is exceptional and stylistic. Grammarians seem not to have considered that it is just as important to recognize significant normal order as some particularly strange order with special connotative value. Often the subject of word order is not discussed except in connection with some construction which exhibits an interesting modification from the norm.[17] There are of course few grammarians who do not recognize the fact that word order is significant in English, but as yet the systematic treatment of word order has not become a part of their methodology of presentation of grammatical facts. Perhaps this is due to the fact that the Greek and Latin

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[11] Maetzner, op. cit., Vol. III, pp. 537 ff.

[12] Poutsma, op. cit., Vol. I, pp. 245 ff.

[13] E. Kruisinga, An English Grammar for Dutch Students. Utrecht: Kemink en Zoon, 1917, pp. 227 ff.

[14] Gustav Krüger, Syntax der englischen Sprache. Dresden: C. A. Koch, 1914, Vol. VI, pp. 1700 ff.

[15] George O. Curme, Syntax. New York: D. C. Heath Company, 1934, pp. 347 ff.

[16] A. C. E. Vechtman-Vecht, A Syntax of Living English. Utrecht: Kemink en Zoon, 1928.

[17] G. Wendt, Syntax des heutigen Englisch. Heidelberg: Carl Winters Universitätsbuchhandlung, 1911.

models from which present grammarians have taken so much of their terminology and methodology do not deal with word order except as a subordinate factor and from a stylistic standpoint. The failure to recognize this significant difference between English and the ancient languages of Greek and Latin and to incorporate this into the methodology of grammatical analysis has greatly impaired the understanding of the larger patterns in English. Palmer[18] has been more cognizant of the importance of word order and has incorporated it more into his system of analysis than other grammarians.

Features of modulation which have syntactic significance are more generally overlooked than any other feature of linguistic analysis. This may be due to the fact that linguists are too often bound by letter linguistics and obtain practically all source materials from books. Hyphens which are principally involved in the analysis of morphology and marks of punctuation which figure largely in syntax have never been standardized to represent accurately the phonetic or phonemic phenomena involved. Non-native speakers accordingly find it exceedingly difficult to interpret correctly the various intonation patterns which are significant for syntax. Sweet[19] was one of the first to note the importance of intonation and stress as they affect morphology and syntax. Kruisinga[20] makes some attempt

[18] Palmer, op. cit., pp. 450–462, et passim.

[19] Henry Sweet, A New English Grammar. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press, 1903.

[20] Kruisinga, op. cit., Vol. I.

to analyse the materials in the first volume of his grammar of English, but he does not incorporate this material into the grammar as an essential part of his methodology. Curme[21] mentions some rare intonation patterns, but they are curiosities with him rather than elements that should fit into some more extensive phonemicized statement. Both Palmer[22] and Jespersen[23] do more with intonation as a recognized principle in the analysis of constructions than any of the other grammarians. But even here, as in the analyses of Jones,[24] Schmidt,[25] and Armstrong and Ward[26] there is a failure to emphasize the phonemic interpretation of the materials, thus eliminating that which counts from that which does not count. Weingart[27] has presented an interesting general survey of the problem of intona-

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[21] Curme, op. cit.

[22] Palmer, op. cit.

[23] Jespersen, op. cit.

[24] Daniel Jones, An Outline of English Phonetics. Cambridge: W. Heffer and Sons, 1932.

[25] Wolfgang Schmidt, "Satzsinn and Tonfall," Anglia, 61, pp. 98-111.

[26] Lilias E. Armstrong and Ida C. Ward, Handbook of English Intonation. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner, 1926.

[27] Milos Weingart, "Etude du Langage parlé du point de vue musical," Travaux du Cercle Linguistique de Prague, 1, pp. 170-242.

tion features, but with no actual solutions for the problem in English. As yet of course this problem has not been completely solved. It remains one of the most important problems in the phonemic analysis of English, but the writer of a descriptive grammar must indicate the differences of intonation on a level of significant contrasts, even though the final phonemicization must be left for more comprehensive and detailed observations. It is the failure to recognize the intonation features as significant which now delays our phonemic interpretation of them.

The general interpretation of the taxeme of selection has been to limited in scope. It has usually been applied to obvious situations of concord and government, and these topics have been treated in special chapters, often quite apart from the patterns in which they may be involved.[28] It has not been realized that the occurrence of any word at any place in a grammatical pattern involves a selection from a particular class, of which of course it may be the only member. The entire process of grammar involves selections. From the standpoint of methodology we may say that from the possible sentence types one type is selected. Then from the possible constituents for such a sentence type certain constituents are selected, and finally, having selected certain constituents, other constituents must be selected on the basis of concord, government or cross-reference. Every word in an English sentence involves a selection, and this selection is delimited by

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[28] For typical presentations of such topics see Curme, op. cit., pp. 49 ff.; C. T. Onions, An Advanced English Syntax, pp. 29 ff.; and Palmer, op. cit., pp. 673 ff.

the pattern and by the previous selections of words or forms of words. It is the failure to recognize this all-inclusive aspect of selection and the accompanying rigid lines of possibilities involved that has given the impression that English has "no grammar." The selections in English are delimited usually only by the pattern and not by the forms of some previously selected word.[29] Hence we do not have so much formal concord, government and cross-reference as in such a language as German.

The subject of phonetic change on the syntactic level is largely neglected by grammarians except for some occasional notice. This is no doubt because of the fact that phonetic change is not a determining grammatical feature in English. It is either automatic as with the indefinite article or it is optional. However, the optional variants of certain words are arbitrarily delimited in occurrence, and the statement of these occurrences belongs to the field of syntax. The statement of the variant forms belongs to the field of morphology. Palmer[30] really more than any one else is cognizant of the sandhi combinations in English.

The third of these outstanding failures which one notes in the grammars of the English language is the lack of systematic division of phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon. This is largely the result of the lack of appreciation of the larger patterns in the language, so that morphology and syntax merge into one.

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[29] By previously chosen word one must understand that word which acts as the conditioning or delimiting factor of the choice. It is previous only in the order of the descriptive analysis.

[30] Palmer, op. cit., pp. 9-13.

Also, it has not been recognized that the four principles of classification noted above, namely, order, modulation, selection, and phonetic change, operate both on the morphological and on the syntactic level. The merging of morphology and syntax is well illustrated by Vechtman-Vecht[31] who proceeds from the morphology of nouns to the concord of verbs. Of course the listing of zero plurals is both legitimate and valuable for the morphology, but the analysis of group plurals and the occurrence of a singular noun with plural verb if plural nouns intervene is purely a matter of syntax and not morphology. An even worse arrangement of materials exists when items are discussed topically as with Jespersen.[32] Under the subject of number are discussed the substantives, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, compounds, foreign plurals, unchanged plurals, and finally, the meaning of the plural. There is little scientific order to the materials and the topics considered are both morphological and syntactic, and the final topic belongs to lexicon and not to syntax. The next large division of Jespersen's grammar is on substantives. It is Jespersen's distinctive idea of the difference between morphology and syntax, as noted above,[33] that evidently leads to this type of rather amorphous classification.

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[31] Vechtman-Vecht, op. cit., pp. 51-70.

[32] Otto Jespersen, A Modern English Grammar, Vol. 2 pp. 16-210.

[33] Supra, p. 13.

Even though grammarians may preserve a certain distinction between morphology and syntax, they rarely attempt to distinguish between syntax and lexicon. They repeatedly attempt to incorporate within the syntax an analysis of the range of meaning values particularly of such words as shall, will, should, would, ought, may, might, etc. Many have been prompted by the comparative and paedagogic value of such lexical explanations, as for example with Gustav Krüger,[34] but the results have been unfortunate, for the formal patterns have been obscured and the lexical approach has been too often accompanied by a notional method of classification.[35] Curme[36] is an especially frequent offender in mixing morphology, syntax, and lexicon. The volume on Parts of Speech and Accidence contains much which is simply syntax or lexicon, but it must be noted that the volume on Syntax is distinctly superior. Such subjects as the ranges of meaning of the various tense forms are essentially materials for the lexicon. Tense sequences on the other hand do belong strictly in the field of syntax.

In addition to these major deficiencies, namely, failure to recognize the large patterns, to classify consistently on the basis of the four taxemes, and finally to distinguish clearly between the various levels of linguistic analysis, there have been several mistakes in attitude and methodology which have seriously distorted

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[34] Krüger, op. cit.

[35] Infra, pp. 31 ff.

[36] Curme, op. cit.

the descriptive and analysis of English. One of the most important of these consists in not distinguishing clearly between the synchronic and the diachronic view of language, and accordingly the historical outlook has prejudiced and distorted the descriptive viewpoint.

The historical and comparative points of view are most often responsible for the confusion in the descriptive analysis of the language. Grammarians have not taken seriously the emphasis of Saussure[37] and others in distinguishing clearly between the diachronic and the synchronic viewpoints. Following the general emphasis of the nineteenth century and the principles laid down by Paul,[38] the historical approach to the study of any one language has almost monopolized the methodology. Kruisinga[39] contends that the historical reasons are the most important reasons for calling a part of speech by a particular name, as for example with regard to the relative pronouns. From the descriptive point of view things are to be given the same name if they pattern together. Kruisinga's analyses constantly reveal this basic principle of historical approach. Sonnenschein[40] would of course go much fur-

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[37] Ferdinand de Saussure, Cours de Linguistique Général. Ed. Charles Bally, A. Sechehaye. Paris: Payot, 1931.

[38] H. Paul, Prinzipien der Sprachgeschichte.

[39] E. Kruisinga, "Critical Contributions to English Syntax," English Studies, 6, p. 143.

[40] E. A. Sonnenschein, The Soul of Grammar. Cambridge: at the University Press, 1929.

ther, and he actually insists that all the original Indo-European categories are still alive in English. Of course all that he is saying is that anything that may be expressed in one language may be expressed in another, for though his categories show some similarity of meaning, there is certainly no correlation as to formal manner of presentation. Actually Sonnenschein employs a historical, comparative, and notional view of language in confusing the descriptive presentation. These three are often thus confused. The incorporation of a dative into the system of present-day English, which is done by Gustav Krüger,[41] Deutschbein,[42] Curme,[43] Sonnenschein,[44] and Onions,[45] as well as many others, is largely due to historical and comparative considerations, for without a knowledge of the history of English and of other cognate languages it is highly questionable whether grammarians would have put order on a par with formal modification, particularly when the objective forms occur in only six words in the entire English language, namely, me, us, him, her, them, and whom. Often the historical consider-

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[41] Gustav Krüger, Syntax der englischen Sprache. Vol. III, pp. 737 ff.

[42] M. Deutschbein, System der neuenglischen Syntax. Cothen: Otto Schulze, 1917.

[43] Curme, op. cit.

[44] Sonnenschein, op. cit.

[45] Onions, op. cit.

ations lead one as far from the descriptive viewpoint as when Fowler[46] analyses He burst out laughing as containing a verbal noun governed by a vanished preposition.

The comparative approach is especially obvious in many grammars of English. Gustav Krüger[47] continually attempts to show parallelisms between German and English with the result that the patterns of English are confused. The really serious objection to his method is that he compares notional values and translation possibilities rather than dealing with syntactic problems. Even in the case of Conrad[48] where pedogogic values may have dictated the methods employed, it would seem unnecessary to be quite so prompted by the comparative method, particularly when this is on the notional level. Apart from the involved discussions of the use of shall and will with the various persons, surely the only reason that they are incorporated into the paradigms of the language in a more special manner than must, may, might, can, could, etc., is that they translate a future tense form in certain other languages. This comparative interpretation is completely arbitrary. Sonnenschein[49] does much the

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[46] Henry Watson Fowler and F. G. Fowler, The King's English. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press, 1924, p. 109.

[47] Krüger, op. cit.

[48] Hermann Conrad, Syntax der englischen Sprache für Schulen. Berlin: Ernst S. Mittler and Sohn, 1909.

[49] Sonnenschein, The Soul of Grammar, pp. 22 ff.

same thing when he insists that the English has a vocative case since we may prepose an interjection oh before a name. The elaborate analysis of the aspects in English by Deutschbein[50] is dictated largely by the historical and comparative considerations, and worked out along notional lines. All of which has practically no value for a formal description of the language. Once one begins to multiply aspects along notional lines, these is no limit to the possibilities. Deutschbein[51] does the same thing with mode.

It is not to be understood that historical and comparative grammars do not have their respective values. The difficulty is in not recognizing that historical and comparative grammars must be based upon at least two sets of descriptive data. Any one set of descriptive data must constitute a unit, and be justified quite apart from historical and comparative considerations. The language functions from the descriptive viewpoint on a purely synchronic level, and it is the unitary and integrated aspect of this level which must be kept in mind. But much of the difficulty in correlating the materials in such a way as either to exhibit the historical and comparative values, as with some grammarians, or at least not to do violence to the historical and comparative picture, as with others, is involved in the problem of terminology. Many completely unnecessary arguments have been waged in the field of grammar because of a basically false concept of

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[50] Deutschbein, op. cit., pp. 67-95.

[51] Ibid., pp. 112-124.

naming. Since historical and comparative investigations seemed to justify the noun, grammarians set out to define the correct limits of the noun, as though this word represented some reality which needed definition. The very reverse process ought to be followed. The grammarian must discover those classes of words which are similar in form or function, and then attach names to them. The name in itself is of little significance except as a symbolic device with more or less mnemonic value. The important thing is not the name used to designate the class but the constituents which are subsumed under this class. The problem of naming is accordingly always secondary in importance. The essential feature is the classification of those elements together which have common form or function. Naming should always be looked upon as either accidental or arbitrary.

Basic to many of these problems and a factor which has been mentioned above[52] is the notional approach to linguistic analysis, in other words, the adoption of meaning as the basis for grammatical classification. Of course, syntax must take into consideration the episememes of the tagmemes, in other words, the meanings of the constructions, but to disregard the formal differences and to employ purely notional differences as a basis of analysis is to become involved in endless and irrelevant classifications. Curme[53] makes use of class distinctions based upon notional values more than most other grammarians. Accordingly, he includes

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[52] Supra, p. 23.

[53] G. O. Curme, Parts of Speech and Accidence, pp. 15 ff.

under indefinite pronouns such expressions as a person, a man, a fellow, as well as such statements of quantity as a heap, no end, a large number, a lot, oceans, numbers, etc. The pattern value of these words is surely the same as that of the general class of nouns as he conceives of them, and it is only in the sense of a pronoun as "standing for" something, that these words could possibly be considered as indefinite pronouns. A notional analysis of the meaning of pronoun has thus caused a faulty inclusion of things together which do not belong together. Curme[54] insists that the subjunctive is a category of thought and not form, but elsewhere he declares that ought and must are past tense subjunctive forms which have no corresponding present tense forms.[55] It would be perfectly all right if grammarians wished to write thoroughly notional grammars and maintained the methodology throughout, but it is the shifting of criteria for classification which produces the distortion of the patterns of the language. We can never assume much correlation between form and meaning. The natural logic that Jespersen[56] continually defends is too largely the unconscious conformity of logic to the linguistic patterns in the first place. Jespersen's adherence to his basic assumption as to the fundamental logic within language

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[54] G. O. Curme, Syntax, p. 224.

[55] G. O. Curme, "The Subjunctive in Classical and Modern Languages," Modern Philology, 26, p. 391.

[56] Otto Jespersen, "Logic and Grammar," Society for Pure English, tract 16, pp. 1-17.

has led him into rather serious distortion and complication of the formal and functional values. For example, the setting up of "nexus" substantives, and dividing expression such as the doctor's arrival from the man's house, because the first is equivalent in meaning to a "nexus" construction, the doctor arrives, is largely unwarranted since there are no paralleling formal or functional differences. Meaning is often a convenient adjunct to the classification, and in all cases must be considered, but meaning alone should not be made the basis of it.

The dominant value of the notional approach is recommended as a basic rule of analysis by Sonnenschein[57] who insists that if one "takes care of the sense, the sounds will take care of themselves," Jespersen[58] in criticizing Fries on the analysis of the periphrastic future declares that "in syntax meaning is everything." More often the notional approach is evidenced in such expressions as "equivalent to" or "stands for," which are so extensively employed by Onions.[59]

A more fundamental difficulty is involved in the multiplication of so-called functional distinctions by the elaboration of the classification based upon notional values. For example, Deutschbein[60] analyzes what he

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[57] E. A. Sonnenschein, A New English Grammar, Pt. 2, p. 38.

[58] Otto Jespersen, A Modern English Grammar, Vol. IV, p. 291.

[59] Onions, op. cit., pp. 10, 42, 101, et passim.

[60] M. Deutschbein, "Die Einteilung der Aktionsarten," Englische Studien, 54, pp. 80-86.

regards as the aspects in English, but these aspects have no formal parallelism at all. Accordingly this is no more than a grouping of ideas with no essentially linguistic value, except insofar as any semantic study may be said to have linguistic value in the broad sense of the term. Blake[61] is more logical than most people who attack the problem, for he states frankly that the study is a semantic one, but he fails to point out the almost unlimited extent of such a classification, depending upon the scale of values used and upon the extent of the material analyzed. Untimately such a study is an exercise in logic, namely, the naming of all relationships between linguistically given referents. But Blake's method is more sound in that he does not claim any formal or functional parallelism for the classification. It is this latter thing that Leopold[62] does when he attacks Jerpersen on the subject of form or function as the basic criterion for linguistic analysis. The difficulty is that Leopold, though he rejects Jespersen's point of view, adopts Curme's, which is not essentially functional but too largely notional in fundamental outlines. He does not seem to see that many of the arguments which he uses against Jespersen's so-called "logical" classifications are even more applicable to Curme's system.

Very closely associated with this notional approach to classification of the facts of language is the mental-

[61] Frank R. Blake, "A Semantic Analysis of Case," Curme Volume of Linguistic Studies, Language Monographs, No. 7, pp. 34-49.

[62] W. F. Leopold, "Form or Function as the Basis of Grammar," Journal of English and German Philology, 34, pp. 414-431.

istic attitude and the accompanying teleological implications of linguistic development. As in the case of Jespersen,[63] few grammarians are willing to describe only what they find, but they seem to believe that a descriptive grammar should be explanatory and interpretive, indicating not only what constructions occur but also why such constructions occur and why such constructions have certain forms. It is this attempt to answer the why's of syntax which has given rise to so many useless and erroneous speculations. Kellner,[64] for example, speculates about the older forms of English syntax by saying that "the syntax of the older period is natural, naive, that is, it follows much more closely the drift of ideas, of mental images." Sheffield[65] on the other hand thinks that the present fixed word-order began to appear within the inflected languages simply as a result of growing orderliness of thought. Havers[66] is thoroughly mentalistic in his explanation of the teleological function of the Folkspsychologie, the Phantasiedenken, and the Geistesluxus. Deutschbein[67] insists on seeing the determining influence of the Gefühlsverlauf of the speaker at work in shaping

[63] Otto Jespersen, Essentials of English Grammar, p. 20.

[64] Leon Kellner, Historical Outlines of English Syntax, p. 9.

[65] A. D. Sheffield, Grammar and Thinking. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1912, p. 70.

[66] Wilhelm Havers, Handbuch der erklärenden Syntax. Heidelberg: Carl Winters Universitätsbuchhandlung, 1931.

[67] M. Deutschbein, System der neuenglischen Syntax. pp. 67-95.

the language. Even the shift from tense to aspect, which he notes as so important in English, is interpreted as a shift from subjective to objective thinking. Curme, who is particularly attracted by mentalistic and notional explanations, sees in the spread of the use of the copulative verb the fact that there was "an absolute need of such a word."[68] But it should be obvious to him that other languages get along perfectly well without one. Often Curme associates these mentalistic explanations with social phenomena. He contends that gender arose because of the imaginative quality of the people and after the loss of this gender distinction "English prose" became more composed.[69] He implies a relationship between the rise of culture and the elaboration of linguistic patterns in stating, "With the rising culture of the Old English period new forms arose to relieve the present and the past of some of their functions."[70] Such statements are not only unfounded and idle speculations, but they involve the more serious danger of the implications of the entire mentalistic attitude which tries to see in language some hidden teleological force determining its destiny.

It is from this mentalistic view of language that the authoritarian attitude arises. Wattie[71] openly espouses the authoritarian cause. Several of the com-

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[68] G. O. Curme, Parts of Speech and Accidence, p. 66.

[69] Ibid., pp. 138-139.

[70] G. O. Curme, Syntax, p. 231.

[71] J. M. Wattie, "The Grammarian and his Material," The English Association Pamphlet, 75, 1930.

paratively recent grammars of English are rule-making and normative.[72] Curme[73] insists that we should not say, "the most perfect of any English poet," for this is a blend of two other constructions. Sweet[74] calls "ungrammatical" such expressions as "The captain with three of his men were taken prisoner." Aikin[75] is not only authoritarian in viewpoint with regard to certain language usages in the syntactic level, but would even extend this to the phonological level. She contends, "A much easier solution of the orthographic problem and one which appears to be more and more current is progressively to conform the pronunciation of English to the spelling, since it appears impractical to conform the spelling to the pronunciation."[76] It is doubtful whether the author seriously considered the implications of such a statement contradicting as it does all the historical tendencies in language development. Spelling pronunciations are comparatively rare phenomena.

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[72] Fowler and Fowler, op. cit.; James C. Fernald, Connectives of English Speech. New York: Funk and Wagnals Company, 1904; Onions, op. cit.

[73] G. O. Curme, Syntax, p. 188.

[74] Sweet, op. cit., p. 83.

[75] Janet R. Aikin, English Present and Past. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1930, p. 29, et passim.

[76] Ibid., p. 205.

Closely parallel to such mentalistic explanations are the pseudo-answers derived from phonetics, rhythm, generalizations about language structure, and even society. Jespersen[77] states that the tongue trill r fits outdoor life, but that the indoor life of recent years has tended to see a reduction of this in the direction of uvular trill. Lewis[78] even contends that we say it is me rather than it is I, because the sounds in the word me are easier to pronounce than the diphthong consituting the word I. Such pseudo-explanations do not even deserve serious consideration. Van Draat[79] constantly alleges the importance of rhythm in determining both the pattern of a construction and the order of words. For example, the construction with the article before the superlative is explained on the basis of rhythm.[80] Likewise the place of the adverb in the sentence is largely determined by the rhythmic pattern according to van Draat,[81] but the difficulty is that rhythm is employed to explain too many things. Particularly in the case of the position of adverbs,

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[77] Otto Jespersen, The Essentials of English Grammar, p. 39.

[78] Charles L. Lewis, "Phonetics and Syntax," English Journal, 13, pp. 22-28.

[79] P. Fijn van Draat, "The Article before Superlatives," Neophilologus, 5, lp. 348-351.

[80] Loc. cit.

[81] P. Fijn van Draat, "The Place of the Adverb," Neophilologus, 6, pp. 56-88.

the variations which he postulates for the rhythmic patterns are very extensive, thus providing no workable system. One is immediately struck with the apparent lack of perfectly normal examples which would not fit into the rather loose system which is set up. Often there is a tendency to explain some particular linguistic item by broad generalizations, as for example in Jespersen's statement, "But there is in all languages a tendency to place a weakly stressed pronoun as near to the verb as possible."[82] This statement may be true for many languages, but there are certainly many other languages of which this may not be said. But more fundamental than a misstatement is the implication that with the present meagre knowledge which is possessed concerning "all languages" one is able to lay down such generalized principles.[83]

Explanations resting upon social phenomena (these are closely associated with the mentalistic attitude) are always largely untenable. The statement of Leopold,[84] "In England the early middle English period was an age in which the conservative power of social regulation was weakened, a condition which led to a destruction of forms," implies an erroneous view of the source of such linguistic change when it does occur. Certainly there is no well-established correlation between social upheavals and such linguistic modifications.

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[82] Otto Jespersen, A Modern English Grammar, Vol. III, p. 288.

[83] Otto Jespersen, The Philosophy of Grammar, London: George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., 1924.

[84] W. F. Leopold, "Polarity in Language," Curme Volume of Linguistic Studies, Language Monographs, No. 7, p. 104.

One of the principal difficulties in the descriptive analysis of English has been the problem of source materials. In the first place there has been too much emphasis upon written sources. These sources represent only a limited range at best, and some features must necessarily be missed almost completely. Moreover, the method of using such written sources has not been to note everything systematically but only those particular features which have struck the attention of the investigator. Accordingly, unusual patterns have been carefully analyzed, but the great framework of patterns into which these fit has been neglected, and the result is a conglomerate and unbalanced picture. In addition, these written sources have too often been restricted largely to literary materials, and poetry has figured rather too extensively in the quotations. Maetzner[85] particularly fails in this. Curme[86] has shown good judgment in making use of much newspaper material and purely colloquial expressions. Grammarians by and large have not been willing simply to use informants who are native speakers of English. A certain degree of authoritarian attitude still prevails in the selection of source materials. But one of the really serious errors in the choice of the literary sources is that an attempt is made to include too broad a sweep of material in a single descriptive account. The diversity of patterns between Shakespeare and the present day demands that these two periods be treated with a historical perspective, if they are to be included

[85] Maetzner, op. cit.

[86] Curme, op. cit.

within one treatise. That is to say, it must be a comparative study of two stages of the English language, based upon two descriptive accounts, one for each period. This is essentially the historical method. Maetzner,[87] Poutsma,[88] and Onions[89] are particularly guilty of choosing illustrative materials from sources too greatly separated in time, and especially of illustrations from Shakespeare, which have the additional fault of being "versified."

This special preoccupation with written sources is largely responsible for the letter linguistics which constantly seems to creep into grammars of English. Sweet,[90] for example, says, "to prevent the ladies leaving us, where the purely orthographic alteration of ladies to ladies' would make leaving into a full gerund." This is a very artificial way of describing a zero feature, for orthography cannot "make" anything into anything. The sounds are the only things that count, and the orthography is always secondary. Curme[91] is particularly unscientific in his morphology based upon spelling. In trying to understand his statement that one drops the e in love before adding the past tense suffix, it is impossible to know just what is being described, for both synchronically and

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[87] Maetzner, op. cit.

[88] H. Poutsma, A Grammar of Late Modern English, 3 vols.

[89] Onions, op. cit.

[90] Sweet, op. cit., p. 121.

[91] G. O. Curme, Parts of Speech and Accidence, pp. 112-128.

diachronically the statement is wrong.[92] By and large, Kruisinga, Jespersen, and Palmer are freer from letter linguistics than others, though even Kruisinga is too much influenced by the apostrophe in analyzing the genitive plurals. This of course comes from too exclusive a consideration of written materials.

In the refining of techniques and the elaboration of methodology for descriptive analysis Saussure, Sapir, and Bloomfield have made the leading contributions. Increased interest in non-Indo-European languages, for which historical and comparative data have been largely lacking, has been of utmost importance in developing descriptive techniques and the appreciation of the synchronic viewpoint. The work of the Americanists during very recent years has been especially important in its contribution to the methodology of the descriptive analysis.

In the field of English as such, the works of Maetzner, Poutsma, Kruisinga, and Jespersen are of major importance. Maetzner, though comparatively conservative, has fine lists, and has succeeded quite well in separating the strictly historical material from the more contemporary. Both Poutsma and Kruisinga attempt to be completely objective. Kruisinga is however more cognizant of phonetic factors. Jespersen has seen more clearly than others the significance of the larger patterns, though he does not always follow out the implications of his system, and is at times handicapped by a notional analysis of these patterns.

Of those who have made other significant contributions to either the content or methodology of English

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[92] G. O. Curme, Syntax, p. 2421.

grammar, one should note Palmer,[93] who perhaps more than anyone else has emphasized the significance of phonetics and word order. Buyssens[94] in a description of the place of never and ever has admirably illustrated the method which should be followed for all such words in a comprehensive grammar. Both Heuer[95] and Schulze[96] have dealt with the problems of word order and the adverbial elements with keen appreciation of the descriptive approach. Alfred Krüger[97] in an analysis of the relative pronoun has admirably illustrated the manner in which historically significant material may be presented together with descriptive analyses without confusion of standpoints. Kalepky[98] has seen clearly the difficulties in much of the grammatical studies which have been made, but has not as yet contributed anything of particular significance in

[93] Palmer, op. cit.

[94] E. Buyssens, "The Place of Never and Ever in Present-day English Prose," English Studies, 15, pp. 129-149.

[95] H. Heuer, "Beobachtungen über Syntax und Stilistik des Adverbs im Neuenglischen," Anglia, 60, pp. 117-160.

[96] O. Schulze, "Über die Stellung gewisser Satzteile zwischen Hilfsverb und Verb und ähnliche Erscheinungen im Englischen," Die Neueren Sprachen, 20, pp. 119-125, 190.

[97] A. Krüger, Studien über die Syntax des englischen Relativpronomens zu Beginn der spätneuenglischen Zeit. Giessen: Justus Christ, 1929.

[98] T. Kalepky, Neuaufbau der Grammatik. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner, 1928.

the developing of methods for descriptive analysis. Fries[99] in his book American English Grammar has made a significant contribution in (1) the objectivity of the presentation, (2) the use of a comparatively new source of written materials for descriptive analysis and one which most closely approximates spoken English, and (3) the quantitative type of analysis, which has been practically overlooked by most grammarians. One should also mention Ellinger,[100] Kirchner, and Karpf, all of whom have made valuable additions to the understanding of particular problems.

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[99] Charles C. Fries, American English Grammar. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1940.

[100] For lists of works of J. Ellinger, G. Kirchner, and F. Karpf, see the bibliography.

III.

Subject Expressions in Independent Transitive Clauses

1 Major sentence types

1a Single clause frame

a1 Independent exocentric patterns

1a Clauses as heads [1]

a1 Actor-action clause types

1a Transitive clause types

a1 Subject expressions [2]

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[1] Corresponding to the clause patterns are the clause attributives, in keeping with the principle of analyzing first the head and then the attributives.

[2] The subject expression may be omitted (except in the case of imperative sentences, for which see the section on minor sentence types) only with (1) a few formulae like expressions and (2) in highly colloquial discourse. Note the following illustrative examples.

Serves him right.
Thank you.
Here goes.
Why trouble with it?
Why confess our faults to everyone?
Coming home tonight?
Hope so.
See you at ten o'clock.
Glad to do it.

1a1a1a1a Subject head

a1 Order. This is stated under verb-head, for as in all cases the order is stated in terms of previously given constituents.

a2 Selection

2a Frame

a1 Single head

The poor man came along.
I helped him.

a2 Multiple head

2a With single coordinators. These are and, or, but,[3] and "pause-pitch," orthographically usually represented by a comma.[4,5]

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[3] In the formula not only...but also.

[4] The pause-pitch, orthographically generally indicated by a comma, has several possible phonetic actualizations: hesitation, level intonation, lengthened mora value of the last syllabic, non-medial phrase intonation juncture, etc., any one or combinations of these under certain situations give a phonemic pause-pitch. The final analysis of this problem is dependent upon a complete statement of the intonation patterns and transitions between such.

[5] On the basis of immediate constituents there are three basic multiple head patterns with bounded attributives.

(1) The fine man and woman
(2) The fine man and lovely woman
(3) The fine man and the lovely woman

The illustrations in section 1a1a1a1a2a2a do not attempt to cover the range of possibilities.

1a1a1a1a2a2a (cont.)

Jim, Tom or Billy can do it.
The man and his wife will help.
The rabbit and the squirrel and the blue jay..

2b With double coordinators[6]

Either...or, neither...nor

Either John or Jack will be here in time.
Neither a book nor a pencil was to be had.

1a1a1a1a2b Constituents

b1 Substantive[7]

1a Noun[8,9] Any "proper" or "common" noun[10]

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[6] The formula both...and is probably best to be construed as both in attributive relationship as in both the men, all the men, pattern.

[7] By substantive is meant a function class of words that pattern with determiners and bounded attributives. This is to distinguish the class from substitutes, which may have no bounded attributives.

[8] Noun designates a form class of words with plural category formation. Hence the following words derived from adjectives, having plural formation and adjective attributives in bounded position are completely nominalized. Some singulars have both abstract and concrete sememe values.

absolutes, aliens, Americans, Asiatics, Australians, barbarians, Belgians, bitters, captives, catholics, ceremonials, classics, clericals clerics, conservatives, constituents, constitutionals, consumptives, contemporaries, dears, deeps, degenerates, dependents, domestics, ecclesiastics, epileptics, equals, familiars,

1a1a1a1a2b1a (cont.)

James hit the man.
This soup hits the spot.

1b Adjectives[11]

b1 Qualitative.[12] These are abstracts in the singular and personal in the plural. Some

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finals, fanatics, fours, fundamentals, goods, greens, humans, illiterates, illustrateds, imbeciles, incidentals, incurables, inferiors, initials, innocents, insolvents, intellectuals, intermediates, intimates, irreconcilibles, juveniles, liberals, longs, mercenaries, moderates, movables, nationals, natives, negatives, notables, neutrals, ones, orientals, originals, others, particulars, posteriors, preliminaries, privates, progressives, protestants, reactionaries, regulars, revolutionaries, Romans, shorts, specifics, sweets, threes, twos, unfortunates, universals, vitals, woolens.

[9] Of course in such expressions as: the whens and the whys, the ups and downs, the ins and outs, the underlined words pattern as substantives regardless of the form class background and should be considered as completely nominalized.

[10] For the classification of nouns on a functional basis with regard to determiner pattern, see Language by Leonard Bloomfield, p. 205.

[11] By adjective is meant that form-function class of words with comparative-superlative category formation, either by affixation or attribution by more or most, and a class which functions basically as attributive to nouns. The special form of English necessitates many such composite form-function definitions.

[12] Specialized contexts make possible considerable extensions of this usage. This pattern often involves extensive rhetorical and stylistic connotation.

1a1a1a1a2b1b1 (cont.)

of the following illustrative words occur either in the singular or plural, others in both.[13]

bad, beautiful, best, brave, cold, common, dark, dead, deaf, eternal, everlasting, evil, false, fanciful, flat, gentle, good, highest, ideal, idle, indestructible, inevitable, living, loveliest, miraculous, natural, new, old, open, ordinary, poor, possible, probable, sentimental, sick, supernatural, supreme, temporal, thick, true, unforeseen, useful, vanquished, worse, wrong.

The beautiful and the good lead us always to higher accomplishments.
The deaf are sometimes fortunate in this modern world of cacophony.

b2 Limiting

few, many, little, most, several, own

The few that I purchased...
The several that I know...
My own is going to fail us.

1c 1st Verbals.[14] These include any single 1st verbal and any 1st verbal phrase of the patterns, 1, 3, 4, and 5.[15]

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[13] In the superlative almost any adjective can occur with personal plural reference.

[14] By 1st verbal is meant any verbal formed by the -ing suffix.

[15] See section 1a2e, page 203, for listing of verbal phrase patterns.

1a1a1a1a2b1c (cont.)

The managing of the team
The racing at Johnstown
My being hit on the head [16]
His giving this away meant everything.

1d 2nd Verbals.[17] These are personal in reference, singular or plural, but singular only with special contextual conditioning. This is a more or less limited pattern, with definite rhetorical connotative value often attendant. The following examples are illustrative.

accused, bereaved, chosen, anointed, deceased, fallen, injured, ordained

The accused answered the questions quickly.
The injured always have recourse to justice.

1a1a1a1a2b2 Substitutes

2a Personal-definite [18]

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[16] This so-called gerund as a substantive with determiner pattern may not have attributives regularly associated with the verb when the and a determiners occur, except rarely in the case of third type attributives, as illustrated in the following: The constant walking rapidly back and forth. . .

[17] By 2nd verbal is meant the form commonly called perfect passive participle.

[18] As the second member in a double subject head expression a form compounded with -self may occur. Note the following:
Only Jim and myself can do that.
The Thomases and ourselves went out there together.

1a1a1a1a2b2a (cont.)

I, you, he, she, it, we, they

a1 I

1a Class-meaning. Singular "substantive"[19] expression.

1b Substitution type. Speaker and actor identical.

a2 You

2a Class-meaning. Singular or plural "substantive" expression.

2b Substitution type. Hearer or hearers.

a3 He

3a Class-meaning. Singular, personal, masculine, with the following additional classes.

a1 Personifications of:[20]

phantom, ghost, spirit, providence, sun, time, day, fear, anger, despair, war, murder, death, hunger, power.

a2 Fauna. All animals and birds may be personalized. Especially the larger ones. He is generally used when such animals or birds

[19] Substantive is here used in the common general sense and not the specialized usage normally employed in this outline.

[20] Such personification is always optional, but as between he or she, the substitute he is more likely with these words.

1a1a1a1a2b2a3a2 (cont.)
have special sex-distinctive names, such as:

ram, bull, buck, cock, stallion, drake, gander, etc.

When fish or insects have personal substitutes, the choice is often indescriminate.

a3 Flora. The following flowers are commonly personalized with he substitute (some other flowers may be so personalized, but the feminine is more commonly chosen):

pansy, johnny-jump-up, monkey-flower

3b Substitution type. Anaphoric and definite identification.

a4 She

4a Class-meaning. Singular, personal, feminine, with the following optionally personalized classes:

a1 Institutions

church, school, university, state, nation, etc.

a2 Countries

The United States, Great Britain, France, etc.

a3 Ships

The President Harding, the Queen Mary, the Mariposa, etc.

1a1a1a1a2b2a4a4 Fauna. All animals and birds may be personalized, especially larger ones. She is generally used when such animals or birds have special sex-distinctive names as the following:

ewe, cow, doe, hen, mare, filly, duck,[21] goose,[21] etc.

When fish or insects have personal substitutes the choice is often indescriminate.

a5 Flora. The following flowers are commonly personalized with she substitute:

rose, dahlia, narcissus, lotus

a6 Objects of affectionate or sentimental attachment or interest.

car, gun, machine, boat, watch, house, business, invention, etc.

a7 Personification of the following abstracts:[22]

ambition, arts and sciences, beauty, charity, chastity, faith, fame, fancy, fashion, fortune, flattery, glory, harmony, ignorance, imagination, inspiration, jealousy, liberty, luxury, magic, melancoly, mercy, modesty, music, passion, pestilence, pity, plenty, pros-

[21] The words duck and goose in contrast to drake and gander are gradually losing their distinctiveness.

[22] It is not to be understood that all of the above list are necessarily always substituted for by she when personified.

1a1a1a1a2b2a4a7 (cont.)

perity, reason, religion, revenge, theology, truth, vanity, victory, virtue, wisdom.

4b Substitution type. Anaphoric and definite identification.

a5 It

5a Class-meaning. Singular and impersonal

5b Substitution type. Anaphoric generally.[23] With the following classes of antecedents:

b1 Singular referents mentioned in discourse in previous sentences or circumstancially evident.

b2 Referents occurring within the same linguistic utterance.

2a Singular or plural, personal or impersonal equated attributives.

It was my brother.
It is do or die.
It was those men again.
Who was it?
It was my lesson that I was worrying about.

2b Clauses marked by conjunction, including zero.[24] These clauses are normally fi-

---

[23] It is generally anaphoric except for such usage as: beat it, cheese it, can it, etc.

[24] See pp. 190 ff. for classification of clause types.

1a1a1a1a2b2a5b2b (cont.)

nal in the independent clause and occur with all clause types. The following are illustrative:

It was a shame that he left.[25]
It seemed to me that he got away much too fast.
It is necessary that he try it.[25]
It is uncertain when they will arrive.
It has been a long time since he came.
It is too bad if he got sick.
It gives me a pain in the neck that he keeps doing that sort of thing.
It was a problem whether or not he deserved that.
It does bother me who wins this.
It is no worry of mine what he wants.
It's too bad he got sick.

2c Dependent-form clauses.[26]

It irks me you trying to get in at this time.

2d Prepositional phrase with clause as second constituent.[27]

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[25] In these clauses one must recognize the overlapping of patterns with nouns and adjectives having dependent post-posed clauses. See pp. 98 ff. and pp. 166 ff.

[26] See pp. 196 ff. for analysis of dependent-form clauses.

[27] See pp. 209 ff. for analysis of dependent-form clauses as second constituent in prepositional phrase.

1a1a1a1a2b2a5b2d (cont.)

It makes me mad for there to be so much trouble just getting in to see him.

2e Marked infinitives.

It was a pity to get by with that.
It didn't give him any pleasure to hurt that fellow.

2f 1st verbals.

It is no fun going into town every night.
It didn't help him any fishing that far out.
It isn't good pressing it too much.

1a1a1a1a2b2a6 We

6a Class-meaning. Plural[28] "substantive" expression.

6b Substitution type. Includes the speaker among actors.

a7 They

7a Class-meaning. Plural[29] "substantive" expression.

---

[28] The editorial we of course has a singular antecedent.

[29] This is based on natural and not necessarily grammatical plurality, for they may substitute anaphorically for (1) any group noun, such as party, group, army, etc. and (2) expression with plural referent value such as: everyone, each, nobody, none, everybody, everything, no-one, etc.

1a1a1a1a2b2a7b Substitution type. Anaphoric and definite, with the exception of the usage, They say he is well. Here the subject is indefinite and non-identified.

1a1a1a1a2b2b Limiting Substitutes[30]

b1 Definite. Singular-plural.[31]

this/these
that/those

b2 Indefinite

2a Singular

anybody, anything, anyone
somebody, something, someone
everybody, everything, everyone
nobody, nothing, no one
another
one
less

2b Plural

several
both
few
two, three, four, etc.

2c Singular or plural

[30] It is impossible in an analysis of this length to go into all the complicated details of class-meaning and substitution types for these substitutes.

[31] The plural reference value is the same as for they.

1a1a1a1a2b2b2c (cont.)

any	all	some
each	such	neither
certain[32]	more	either
enough	most	none

1a1a1a1a2b2c Relative-interrogative

c1 Personal[33]

who, whoever, whosoever,

c2 Impersonal

which, whichever, whichsoever
what, whatever, whatsoever
when[34]
how[34]
where[34]

2d Possessive-personal-definites

mine theirs

[32] Certain is often found with post-posed attributives such as: of it, of them, etc., in which case it may with some post-posed attributives be singular.

[33] This dichotomy between personal and impersonal does not necessarily parallel that between he-she as contrasted with it. Who does not substitute for countries, institutions, ships, personifications of abstract qualities, animals, birds, flowers, etc. as in the case of she, nor with the additional classes noted with he. Note also that which is anaphoric substitute to personal nouns used in a qualitative sense: He isn't the man which he used to be.

[34] These words may substitute for substantives of time, place, and manner, and may have as attributives some patterns similar to those occurring with other substitutes.

1a1a1a1a2b2d (cont.)

yours	John's[35]
his	the king of England's
hers	whose, whosever, whosesoever[36]
its	
ours	

The class-meaning of these forms includes that of the underlying form plus the fact that these may substitute for either singular or plural antecedents.

1a1a1a1a2b3 Clauses

3a Marked by conjunctive marker, not including zero. These clauses may be introduced by the following:

who, whoever, whosoever, whatever, whatsoever, which, whichever, whichsoever, that, whether, why, whose, whosever, whosesoever, because, where, when, how, however, since.[37]

That he is honest is not doubted by anyone.
Whether we like it or not isn't the question.

[35] The forms with possessive s pattern as substitutes and not as regular substantives. The constituents are not the and boy's in expression the boy's, but rather the boy and 's. This is evidenced by the phrase compounds such as, the King of England's, the man I met yesterday's, etc.

[36] These forms may also be classed in the preceding section in view of their relative usage.

[37] See pp. 190 ff. for analysis of marked clause patterns.

1a1a1a1a2b3a (cont.)

Why he came is a mystery to me.
Because he was rich was no reason to faun before him.
How he expected to get by stumps me.
Whatever you want is yours.
Whoever comes will be sorry.
Whichsoever he wanted was given to him.

3b Clauses unmarked by conjunction.[38]

Bill marrying that girl didn't make it easier.
Their problems handled makes it easier now to go ahead with the other deal.
John and Kit walking in at two A.M. doesn't seem to worry them.
Twenty men rescued in one day is quite a record for the coast patrol.

b4 1st verbals. Single and phrase patterns 1, 3, 4, and 5, of any type verb.[39]

Running that show is no fun.
Being kicked in the teeth was tragic for him.
Having run him down proved fatal.

---

[38] See pp. 196 ff. for analysis of unmarked dependent clause patterns.

[39] These so-called gerunds without determiners may have as attributives any of those types listed for each type of verb. To avoid duplication these will not be listed under attributives to subject-head, for they are listed under attributives to the verb-heads in the analysis of predicate expressions. For a listing of verb phrase patterns see pp. 199-201.

1a1a1a1a2b4 (cont.)

Having been wounded before proved to be too much.

Having been trying is no excuse.

b5 Marked infinitives.[40] Any single infinitive or phrase pattern.[41]

To seek the good should be man's aim.[42]

To be entrusted with that is no small honor.

To have been in the fighting forces merits real reward.

Doesn't to be trying that again and again irk you?

b6 Prepositional phrases

6a With dependent-form clause as second constituent.[43]

For him to try that is incredible.

For a man to have done that much strikes me as tremendously worth while.

---

[40] By marked infinitive is meant any infinitive occurring with the marker to.

[41] See pp. 202 ff. for analysis of infinitive phrase patterns.

[42] In the analysis of subject-expressions, even though under the general heading of transitive sentence type, illustrations are not restricted to transitive predicate types, for the subject expression with slight variations is the same for all clause types, and in subsequent sections reference will be made to this section as illustrative for subject expressions in general.

[43] See pp. 209 ff. for this pattern.

1a1a1a1a2b6b Without clause as second constituent.[44]

From Philadelphia to New York makes it too far for this many.
Between five and ten struck him.

1a1a1a1a3 Modulation

3a With substantives. The substantive normally contains the actualized or suppressed peak or "peg" of the intonation pattern for the subject expression, except where quality expressions as grammatical heads are followed by "substance" expressions in a post-posed prepositional phrase. Here the intonation "peg" occurs on the second constituent of the prepositional phrase. Note the following:

a cake of soap, a bar of candy, a pound of cheese, a piece of cake, etc.

3b With substitutes. The substitute one may occur atonic as subject, and it with antecedent occurring final within the clause, except the equated type, normally occurs atonic. The personal-definite substitutes in inverted order of interrogative type often occur atonic, and this is particulary true of you in which sandhi palatalization normally occurs, e.g. did you is [dɪʧə].

---

[44] This is a very rare pattern and occurs in these formulae almost exclusively. Such expressions can, of course, be interpreted as attributive to a zero (elliptical) head word, e.g. the distance from...to... or between five and ten men..., but such analyses are unnecessary.

1a1a1a1a3c With clauses. These tend to preserve their own intonation pattern, and to set off by distinctive intonation junctures.

1a1a1a1b Attributives to subject-head.

b1 Bounded[45]

1a Post-determiner[46]

a1 Primary. These are attributive directly to the head.

1a Order. These immediately precede the subject-head, with the exception of enough and galore, which are of the same type of attribution as primary attributives, (in contrast to post-posed attributives), even though they occur in post-posed position.

1b Selection

b1 Frame

1a Single attribution

the good man
the poor woman

1b Multiple attribution

---

[45] These attributives occur only with substantives.

[46] By this is meant attributives occurring between the determiner and the subject-head.

1a1a1a1b1a1b1b1 Coordinate.[47] These occur with single coordinators and, or, but, "pause-pitch," or combinations of these,[48] or with double coordinators either...or, neither...nor, both... and.

a small, insignificant, and awkward specimen
a lovely and gracious personality
a poor but happy man
an either funny or desperate attitude
a neither becoming nor pleasant person

b2 Non-coordinate or accumulative[49]

the old red school house
a pretty young woman
the poor little old man
the small gold ring
a tall dark man
the university chemistry club

[47] "Coordinate" indicates that each attributive modifies the head equally.

[48] Though coordinate in form the meaning is sometimes not. Note the following: nice and strong, good and warm, e.g. He wasn't just bad; he was good and bad.

[49] In this pattern each attributive modifies the head together with any other attributive standing between it and the head. Hence in poor little old man the immediate constituents are poor and little old man, and likewise for little old man the immediate constituents are little and old man. An altering of the relative order gives a considerably modified impression. Compare poor little old man with little old poor man or old poor little man, etc. The relative order of such attribution, as based upon the concept of essentiality to the head, is both complicated and arbitrary.

1a1a1a1b1a1b1b2 (cont.)

the California state commerce commission

1a1a1a1b1a1b2 Constituents

2a Adjectives

a1 Conditioners. Occurrence of nouns, nominalized adjectives, 1st or 2nd verbals as substantive subject-head expressions.

a2 Constituents

2a Any qualitative type adjective. The following list is illustrative:

active, angry, artistic, awkward, bad, brilliant, busy, careful, clever, cloudy, common, considerable, convenient, curious, daily, dependent, dirty, easy, energetic, English, evident, expressive, gigantic, free, French, funny, glorious, good, handsome, handy, helpless, hopeful, hungry, immune, imperfect, large, legal, likely, lovely, manly, natural, nervous, northern, obvious, painful, polite, possible, pretty, probably, quarrelsome, rainy, readable, redish, relative, reliable, remarkable, sensible, severe, silent, simple, small, southern, stormy, unkind, unsafe, unwise, useful, white, whitish, wholesome, windy, wooden, woolen, yellow.

the good pie
the rich bachelor

1a1a1a1b1a1b2a2a (cont.)

the fine young servant
the holy anointed

also any adjective phrase compound, such as in the following illustrative examples:

a peace-at-any-price policy
a devil-may-care attitude
a give-and-take affair
a go-ahead signal
an up-to-the-minute place
a tell-tale face
a pinch-penny scandal
a would-be writer
a pay-as-you-enter service

2b The following limitation adjectives. In multiple patterns together with qualitative adjectives, they precede the qualitative type.

many, most, less,[50] such, certain, much,[51] very, few, little, other, several, former, last, latter, same, more, cardinal numbers one, two, three, four, etc.,[52] and ordinal

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[50] Less is regularly limited in occurrence to mass nouns in singular form as in less hay, less work, less milk, etc. It may rarely occur in such expressions as the less pains, less means, less signs of culture.

[51] Much is limited in attribution to mass nouns, generally to the occurrence of too as an attributive. Its occurrence with plural substantive heads is very rare.

[52] Expressions such as a hundred, a thousand, a few function in the same way as these limiting adjectives.

1a1a1a1b1a1b2a2b (cont.)
numerals first, second, third, fourth, etc.

the many people
the most fun
many such folks
this certain fellow
these very people
the first person
this same one
a little money

1a1a1a1b1a1b2b Nouns

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of nouns or 1st verbals as substantive subject-head.

b2 Constituents

2a Nouns in singular form. This is an almost unlimited pattern. These may occur in either coordinate or non-coordinate relationship and together with adjectives. The more usual pattern places adjectives before noun attributives in non-coordinate patterns. The following are illustrative examples:

the Shaw plays, a Roosevelt backer, a steel weld, a Boston tea-party, his household management, the corner grocery, his silk hat, brilliant and silver sheen, intimate and bosom friends, local and county boards, pulpit and parlimentary orator, state and national economy, business and professional life, steel elevated tracks, California flowering pomegranate.

1a1a1a1b1a1b2b2b Nouns in plural form.[53] This pattern is limited, though growing in usage. The following are illustrative:

> customs official, honors man, parcels delivery, United States government, contagious diseases act, industrial works institute, sports page, a seven years war, the plains tribes, the arms budget, the rules committee

2c Nouns with -s suffix.[54] This suffix is an immediate constituent with the noun only and not the phrase with determiner as in the case of the "possessive" genitive. See note 35, page 54, and compare that pattern with such an expression as a children's language. The pattern for the possessive type would have to be the children's language. The following examples are illustrative of the so-called "descriptive" genitive.

> a children's language, a women's college, a man's shoe, a ladies' knit glove, a stone's throw, a drinker's heart, a men's affair, a mother's heart, her men's attire, a loud visitor's knock, a people's man, a men's party.

---

[53] Since the genitive -s with plurals in -s occurs as a zero alternative, there may be some doubt at times as to the proper classification of some examples.

[54] The only basic criteria between these expressions and such compounds as lady's-man, printer's-error, master's-degree is that of inseparability and a tendency to unifying stress in the case of these compound types. The line of demarcation, however, is difficult to draw and in some cases impossible.

1a1a1a1b1a1b2c Adverbs

c1 Conditioners. Occurrence of nouns, adjectives, and 2nd verbals as substantive subject heads.[55]

c2 Constituents

2a With noun substantive subject-head. This is a strictly limited pattern with a certain few adverbs, as in the following illustrative examples:

> his often trials, a soon winner, an almost impossibility, an almost god, the once generalissimo, a seldom pleasure, the above statement, his off day, the then duke, the inside passenger, an outside job, the down stroke, the after life, the far side.

2b With adjective substantive subject-head. The same selection of attribution is possible here as with adverbial secondary attributives to adjectives.[56] Note the following illustrative types:

> the extremely natural, the very old, the eternally possible, the absolutely false, the awfully ordinary, the practically inevitable.

2c With 2nd verbal substantive subject-head. The same selection of attribution is possible here as with adverbial secondary attributives to adjectives.[56]

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[55] See note 39, page 55 for statement of treatment of attributives to 1st verbals.

[56] See pp. 69 ff.

1a1a1a1b1a1b2c2c (cont.)

the recently bereaved, the fully anointed, the badly injured, the completely sanctified.

1a1a1a1b1a1b2d 1st verbals [57]

d1 Conditioners. Occurrence of nouns and 1st verbals as substantive subject-heads.

d2 Constituents. Single 1st verbal of any type verb.[58] Note the following illustrative types:

---

[57] These 1st verbals may be distinguished from the completely adjectivized forms in -ing, in that the first verbals may not have as attributives such adverbs as very, so, more, most, too, etc.; these first verbals state a process, the adjectives a quality. Contrast a striking hat with a striking force, or some shocking news with a shocking machine. The following words with -ing formative regularly occur as completely adjectivized:

amazing, amusing, becoming, blushing, captivating, charming, cheering, comforting, confusing, convincing, deafening, deserving, discouraging, embarrassing, encouraging, exciting, flattering, fleeting, flourishing, forgiving, grasping, grudging, interesting, inviting, lasting, loving, maddening, misleading, obliging, pleasing, pressing, promising, provoking, puzzling, refreshing, satisfying, shocking, stimulating, striking, surprising, tempting, terrifying, thriving, willing, winning.

[58] These patterns must be distinguished from the compounds of the following type:

boarding-house, brewing-tub, carving-knife, cooking-apples, dancing-partner, dining-table, drawing-table, dressing-room, drinking-cups, fainting-fits, fishing-rod, fishing-tackle, growing-pains, housing-condition, hunting-trophy, ironing-board, kindling-wood, laughing-stock, meeting-house, riding-stables, shaving-kit, shooting-fray, singing-lessons, sinking-funds, sleeping-car, sleeping-draught, spinning-wheel, swimming-match, touring-car, visiting-day, waiting-room, walking-stick, writing-desk.

1a1a1a1b1a1b2d2 (cont.)

a floating stick, a revolving platform, a singing lark, a raving maniac, running water, the attacking party, a sinking boat, the coming events, the existing danger, the presiding officer, the remaining number, the surrounding walls, the falling snow, the retreating soldiers, the following example, an investigating committee, an adjusting commission.

2e 2nd verbals.[59,60]

e1 Conditioners. With a substantive subject-head.

e2 Constituents. The following are illustratives:

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[59] Special forms occur for certain verbs: drunken, shrunken, sunken, graven, laden, shaven, molten, swollen. These, however, usually occur as completely adjectivized (see footnote 60).

[60] As in the case of the 1st verbals distinction must be made between genuine second verbals and those which have been completely adjectivized in function. Compare an accomplished person with an accomplished task. The adjectives state a quality of the substance while the verbal the state as the result of a process. The following words of 2nd verbal formation regularly occur as completely adjectivized:

agitated, altered, amazed, ashamed, astonished, bored, celebrated, civilized, complicated, confused, contented, crowded, decided, delighted, depressed, determined, devoted, disappointed, discontented, disgusted, distinguished, embarrassed, enlightened, excited, exhausted, experienced, faded, flattered, flushed, frightened, grieved, guarded, harassed, hurried, interested, mystified, neglected, noted, offended, pleased, puzzled, qualified, reserved, terrified, tired, unclassified, uncooked, uncovered, undamaged, upset, worried.

1a1a1a1b1a1b2e2 (cont.)

a paid bill, an acquired reputation, a conquered town, the captured troops, the collected manuscripts, the armed forces, a reserved section, a trained filly, a cut portion, the surrounded troops, the imprisoned captives, the shackled men, the beaten contestant, a written apology, the shattered glass, a burst main, an exploded cartridge, the inked drawing, some deposited cash, a printed article, a drawn sword.

• 2f Marked infinitives. These occur only with patterns 3 and 5, which have the 2nd verbals as the final constituent.

f1 Conditioners. The infinitive is attributivized by not.

f2 Constituents. Any verbs admitting infinitive patterns 3 and 5.[61]

a not to be forgotten scene[62]
a not to be enjoyed opportunity
a not to be handled vase

1a1a1a1b1a1c Modulation. The primary attributive is ordinarily in "pre-peg frame" to the subject-head. One special modulatory pattern involving primary

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[61] See pp. 201 ff. for analysis of infinitive patterns.

[62] Such patterns may be treated synthetically as adjective compounds, but these do not have (1) unifying stress, (2) the same distribution (as determined by attributives) as do other adjective phrase compounds, and (3) compound "structure" in post-posed position.

1a1a1a1b1a1c (cont.)

attributives should be noted. Certain multisyllable primary attributives accented on the final syllable in absolute or post-verb position, may be accented on a non-final syllable when immediately preceding a subject-head accented on a first syllable. This pattern is almost always maintained in the writer's speech. In the following words the primary attributives immediately preposed to a subject-head with initial stress have the stress on the first syllable.

all-wise, biting-cold, bitter-sweet, blood-red, blue-eyed, Chinese, clean-cut, clean-shaven, dead-drunk, dead-tired, deep-set, fourteen, full-fed, good-humored, good-looking, good-natured, good-sized, grass-green, half-eaten, hard-boiled, hard-featured, high-born, high-flying, home-cured, home-spun, icy-cold, life-giving, long-legged, loud-voiced, luke-warm, new-born, old-fashioned, pitch-dark, ready-made, red-mad, sardine, sea-greens, snow-white, sore-footed, tempting-red, two-seated, unknown, well-done, well-made, wide-open.

Contrast the following:

a 'Chinese 'bank	a Chin'ese in'vasion[63]
a 'dead-drunk 'sot	He was dead-'drunk.
the 'fourteen 'boys	He was four'teen.

[63] Before subject-heads with initial unstressed syllable the choice of accentual forms varies.

1a1a1a1b1a2 Secondary attributives. These are attributive to the primary attributives.

2a Order. The secondary attributives immediately precede primary attributives with the exception of enough, which follows.

2b Selection

b1 Frame. Secondary attributives may be single or multiple, although multiple patterns are not frequent. If multiple, the constituents are coordinate and occur with coordinators.

a very fine dress
an almost white dress
an unfailingly and poignantly interesting work
a neither strikingly nor amazingly new design

b2 Constituents

2a Adverbs

a1 Occurrence of any adjective, noun, 1st verbal, or second verbal as primary attributives.

a2 For types of adverbs attributive to adjectives see list on p. 163. 1st and 2nd verbals may have as adverbial attributives any adverb normally permitted as third attributive to the verb of the same class. The following are illustrative:

a very cold night, a properly conducted affair, an amazingly small number, a poor enough garment, faultlessly dressed man, the

1a1a1a1b1a2b2a2 (cont.)

minutely lettered names, a highly principled person, a recently published article, a newly pacified region, an absolutely master hand,[64] a completely granite base, a rapidly turning structure, an exceedingly interesting book.

2b Adjectives

b1 Conditioners

1a With adjectives as primary attributives. This is a comparatively limited pattern and such adjective forms may be considered rather as alternate adverbial forms, adverbialized by zero (rather than by -ly). Certainly it would seem that the words pretty, mighty, and real, used as expressions of degree and attributive to adjectives, should be so classified.

a pretty good statement
a mighty nice idea
a real fancy dress
an amazing fine people
an uncommon pretty group of girls

1b With nouns as primary attributives. The following examples are illustrative of the various types:

a young women's college, his more business techniques, a long distance call, the black

[64] This pattern is comparatively rare, but note the additional illustrative examples: a purely family affair, a strictly ballad form, the exclusively California fruits, a distinctly church of England institution.

1a1a1a1b1a2b2b1b (cont.)

silk coverings, a mutual admiration society, a common prayer book, a pale ale house, a private school boy, a rough sea boat, the sweet Madonna appearance, the old bachelor lodgings, the small children's language, a poor men's affair.

b2 Constituents. The adjectives for the first class (i.e. attributive to other adjectives) are strictly limited, as noted, but for the second class with noun primary attributives the range of possibilities is as broad as primary adjective attribution, though the actual frequency of occurrence is restricted, due to the limitations of primary attributives.

2c 2nd verbals

c1 Conditioners. These occur with noun primary attributives.

c2 Constituents. Any class of single 2nd verbal, but the pattern itself is comparatively rare.

the bottled beer works
the rolled steel plant
a chipped stone wall

2d Nouns

d1 Conditioners. Occurrence of noun as primary attributive.

d2 Constituents. Any type of singular noun, though as will be noted from examples,

1a1a1a1b1a2b2d2 (cont.)
proper nouns occur with high frequency in this pattern, which appears to be increasingly productive.

> the China relief association, the Mojave basin commission, the Fairmount park commission, the Tennessee Valley authority, a quartz granite monument, a granite rock jetty.

2e 1st verbals

e1 Conditioners. Occurrence of a noun primary attributive.

e2 Constituents. Any class of 1st verbal attributive to noun head.

> a running water drain, the investigating committee report, a coming events notice, the floating gardens excursion, a singing lark motif, an attacking party encounter.

2f Prepositional phrase

f1 Conditioners. Occurrence of noun or adjective primary attributive.

f2 Constituents. These are restricted to certain prepositional phrases which may occur in bounded position. The following are illustrative:

> a by no means pleasant look, an at all events Mid-west attitude, an at first sight despicable condition, an in those days enormous expenditure.[65]

1a1a1a1b1a3 Tertiary attributives.[66] These are attributive to the immediately following secondary attributives.

3a Order. The tertiary attributives immediately precede secondary attributives.

3b Selection

b1 Adverbs[67]

1a Conditioners. Occurrence of adverbs, adjectives, 1st and 2nd verbals as secondary attributives.

1b Constituents. These are limited primarily to adverbs of degree.

a very properly conducted affair, an exceedingly minutely lettered form, a rather recently published article, a long ago demolished edifice, an almost purely family affair, some

---

[65] The fact that such "bounded" prepositional phrases are often written with hyphens does not alter the fact that they have the same distribution as secondary attributives.

[66] Attribution of more than tertiary rank may occur, but examples of such are very rare. Note however such an expression as a certainly not very cleverly worded statement. Potentially there is no limit to the ranking. Actually, however, more than tertiary attribution is rarely found, but the same method of analysis may be used regardless of the extension of attribution.

[67] This pattern most often occurs with adverbs which are attributive to 2nd verbals.

1a1a1a1b1a3b1b (cont.)

very amazingly beautiful pictures, a very terrible hard job, a finely chipped stone wall.

b2 Adjectives

2a Conditioners. Occurrence of noun as secondary attributive.

2b Constituents.[68] This is a very infrequent pattern.

a crystalline quartz granite monument
the West Virginia coal commission

b3 2nd verbals

3a Conditioners. With noun as secondary attributive.

3b Constituents. Potentially any 2nd verbal, but this type of construction is rare.

the unoccupied China relief commission

b4 Nouns

4a Conditioners. With noun as secondary attributive.

4b Constituents. Largely limited to proper nouns (see statement as to noun secondary attributives on page 71).

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[68]It must be noted that for the patterns listed under this heading and that of the following two classes with 2nd verbals and nouns there may be several potentially different relationships of attribution. To find completely unambiguous illustrations of these patterns is very difficult.

1a1a1a1b1a3b4b (cont.)

the McCormack tractor distribution agency
a Sperry flour inspection laboratory.

1a1a1a1b1b Determiners

b1 Order. Determiners precede attributives of section 1a1a1a1b1a, called "post-determiner attributives."

b2 Selection

2a Conditioners. The occurrence or non-occurrence of determiners is determined by the class of the substantive head.[69]

a1 With determiners

1a Common nouns. These are "conceived of" as occurring in more than one specimen, hence countable. In the plural, a determiner is required for the definite category but is optional for the indefinite.

a1 Bounded. These require determiners in definite and indefinite singular. With class-meaning of objects "conceived of" as occurring so that specimens cannot be subdivided or merged.

teacher, student, thing, man, woman, mouse, horse, lion, cow, church, house, sea, ocean, hill, mountain, lake, river, cloud, wagon, car, etc.

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[69] See Bloomfield, Language, p. 205, for the basis of the following outline.

1a1a1a1b1b2a1a1 (cont.)

the teacher	:	a teacher
the teachers	:	teachers

a2 Unbounded. Determiners are required for the definite category only. The class-meaning is of species of objects "conceived of" as occurring such that the specimens can be subdivided or merged.

2a Mass nouns. These have no plural and never take a. The class-meaning is the same as noted above except that the specimens exist independently.

wheat, hair, oats, sand, water, air, iron, steel, gas, tea, coffee, lamb, mutton, beef, fish, flax, soap, fuel, coal, oil, steam, naphtha, bread, blood, etc.

the water	:	water
the gas	:	gas

2b Abstract nouns. Definite or indefinite determiners may occur in the singular or plural. Without a determiner and in the singular all specimens are "conceived of" as included. With a determiner and in the singular or with or without a determiner and in the plural specimens are "conceived of" as separate. The class-meaning is the same as for mass nouns except that the specimens are "conceived of" as existing only as a demeanor (quality, action, relation) of other objects.

truth, beauty, loneliness, peace, goodness,

1a1a1a1b1b2a1a2b (cont.)

manhood, freedom, bondage, friendship, joy, music, art, science, hate, error, order, righteousness, knowledge, industry, etc.

truth : the truth : the truths : a truth : truths

error : the error : the errors : an error : errors

1b Proper nouns. The class-meaning is of objects occurring in only one specimen. The indefinite article may occur in case of actual or potential homonymity,[70] but usually there is not an article, definite or indefinite. The definite article is employed, however, with the following words (a class which is arbitrarily determined).

Aegean, Alleghanies, Andes, Argentine, Atlantic, Balkans, Baltic, Bahamas, Bosphorus, Cameroons, Colorado,[71] Congo, Crimea, Danube, Euphrates, Euxine, Galapogos Islands, Ganges, Hague, Hellespont, Himalayas, Levant, Mauretania (name of ship),[72] Mediterranean, Mississippi, New Hebrides, Nile, Ozarks, Pacific, Palatinate, Peloponnesus, Pleiades, Philippine Islands, Pyrennes, Queen Mary (name of ship), Rockies, Sierra Nevadas, Smokies, Sudan, Tyrol, Ukraine, United States, West Indies.

[70] This applies to such expressions as: a certain John T. Smith, a Shakespeare, a Tim Fisher, etc.

[71] All rivers occur with determiners.

[72] All names of ships occur with determiners.

1a1a1a1b1b2a2 Without determiners

2a Proper nouns. Class of words "conceived of" as containing only one specimen in the referrent.

John, Jack,[73] Chicago, Pittsburgh, California father,[74] mother,[74] Vesuvius, Plymouth Rock, Manhattan, Mexico, Europe, Asia, etc.

2b Common nouns. Without determiners the meaning is indefinite.

b1 Bounded. These may occur without a determiner in the plural.[75]

b2 Unbounded.

2a Mass nouns may occur without determiner and never employ a.

2b Abstract nouns. In the singular indefinite without determiner these are "conceived

---

[73] In an expression such as the impudent little Jack Smith it is theoretically implied that Jack could be other than impudent and hence theoretically may occur as more than one specimen, and hence be classed with common nouns. The same type of analysis may be applied to examples cited under note 70.

[74] Under contextually conditioned circumstances in which the substantive expression is completely identified the determiner need not be employed. In such contexts only one possible referent can be implied. These involve such expressions as when one is talking of one's own father or mother, relative, etc., e.g. Mother called me or in such an expression as, Breakfast will be served at eight.

[75] It is possible to analyze this lack of determination as a zero indefinite determiner. This would in many ways simplify the structural statement.

1a1a1a1b1b2a2b2b (cont.)

of" as including all specimens. They may occur without determiner in the plural.

1a1a1a1b1b2b Constituents

b1 Definite determiners

1a With singular concordance to subject-head

this : that

1b With plural concordance to subject-head

these[76] : those[76]

1c With singular and plural subject-heads the, my, your, his, her, our, their, and expressions ending in the so-called "possessive -s" morpheme.[77]

---

[76] The words these and those commonly agree with singular substantive heads kind and sort, provided such words are followed by post-posed prepositional phrases containing plurals as second constituent heads. Note such expressions as: These kind of men, those sort of things, etc.

[77] See page 54, note 35 for analysis of the morphological statement of this pattern in which the bound form -s is the second immediate constituent. Since the form of this pattern involves a bound form as an immediate constituent the analysis of the pattern may be said to properly belong to a section on morphology. The various types are, however, listed here. The first constituent may be any substantive subject-head pattern with somewhat limited choice of post-posed attributives. Certain substitutes may also occur with this formation, particularly those compounded with -one, -body, and -thing. Likewise depending upon one's analysis, his may be considered as patterning here.

1a1a1a1b1b2b1c (cont.)

my boy's injuries, Bill's and Helen's affair, my mother and father's place, whose book, everybody's interests, its base, a mortal's power, my boss' son's wife, the man in the street's argument.

1a1a1a1b1b2b2 Indefinite determiners

2a With singular concordance to subject-head.[78]

a, another, one, each, either, neither, every,[79]

2b With plural concordance to subject-head.

two, three, four, a thousand[80]

2c With singular or plural concordance to subject-head.

It may be noted that the -s may occur with each or the last of any multiple substantive subject-head expression.

Such included series as my wife's cousin's uncle's funeral, involving three or more such possessive forms, are usually avoided.

[78] Such determiners as well as this and that may occur with plural expressions of measurement of time and space. Note the following: This five miles was awfully long. Each three minutes seems like an age.

[79] Every may be a determiner for a plural head in such an expression as every few days.

[80] These include all numerals and numeral phrases. A few patterns in the same class as a thousand.

1a1a1a1b1b2b2c (cont.)

what, whatever, whatsoever
which, whichever, whichsoever
any, some, no, none[81]

1a1a1a1b1b3 Modulation. Many determiners are often atonic, and except in the case of emphatic or contrastive stress do not constitute the intonation "peg" or "peak" of the subject-head expression. When several words intervene between the determiner and the subject-head, the expression is usually broken into two intonation phrases. The following determiners are often atonic.

my, our, your, his, her, its, their, the, a

1a1a1a1b1b4 Phonetic change[82]

4a a/an. A occurs before words beginning with a consonant phoneme, and an before words beginning with a vowel phoneme.

4b some. The word some occurs in an alternate atonic form [sə] in fast speech and before a word beginning with m. The reduced form is quite regular in the sequence some more.

1a1a1a1b1c Pre-determiner attributives

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[81] None is a determiner for only the word other.

[82] No attempt is made here to list all the special phonetic variants which occur for the different determiners under special intonational and phonetic conditions. Only these two illustrative examples are cited.

1a1a1a1b1c1 Primary[83]

1a Order. These immediately precede determiners.

1b Selection

b1 Attributives to the head, including its post-determiner and determiner attributives.

such,[84] many,[84] what,[84] both,[85] all, nearly,[86] almost,[87] about,[87] hardly, half,[88] only, twice not, solely, simply, merely, just, particularly, especially, even, also, exactly, precisely, at least,

such a man, both the people, nearly a

---

[83] The term primary is only used to indicate the series of words juxta-posed to the determiner and is not coordinate with post-determiner primary attribution.

[84] These words occur only when the subject-head has a as determiner: such a, many a, what a.

[85] Both occurs only with plural subject-head.

[86] These words are limited to substantive expressions of quantity: almost a year, nearly a month, about a pound.

[87] These words are limited to substantive expressions of quantity: almost a year, nearly a month, about a pound.

[88] Half may pattern here together with twice, about, all, etc., but may also be considered as patterning like one-third, in one-third the folks did it. The lack of a preposition is not uncommon. The second substantive expression is simply considered as a post-posed attributive.

1a1a1a1b1c1b1 (cont.)

pint, only my father, just these two, especially these men, even a cup, at least this bucket-full, not a man.

b2 Attributives to post-determiner attributives. The following type of adverbs and prepositional phrases:

hardly, rather, much, by all means, at this, quite,

quite a large house,[89] hardly the best thing, much the finest person, by all means the best arrangement

b3 Attributives to the substantive expression including everything from the determiner to the head word.[90]

3a Conditioners. These attributives must have in turn the attributives so, too, as, how, however, and no.

3b Constituents. Any adjective which may potentially occur as a primary attributive.

so little a place, too big a job, too joyous an occasion, so fancy a garment, how fine a piece, no less a man, no finer a person, however good a proposition, too insignificant a

---

[89] In this type of phrase quite is attributive to large, hardly to best, etc.

[90] See page 59 for analysis of normal accumulative type of attribution.

1a1a1a1b1c1b3b (cont.)
little place.[91]

1a1a1a1b1c2 Secondary. These are attributive to primary pre-determiner attributives.

2a Order. Secondary pre-determiner attributives immediately precede primary pre-determiner attributives.

2b Selection

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of primary pre-determiner attributives.

b2 Constituents

2a Attributive to primary attributives (see section 1a1a1a1b1c1b1, page 82).

not, quite,[92] nearly, absolutely, practically, etc.

not all the world, not many a man, not quite all the folks, almost all the money, practically half the group.

2b Attributive to primary attributives noted in section 1a1a1a1b1c1b2, page 83.

very, not

very much the best, not quite all the place

[91] It should be noted that the two patterns, a too officious reply and too officious a reply sometimes merge to produce a too officious a reply with double use of determiner a.

[92] Quite occurs only as attributivized by not.

1a1a1a1b1c2b2c Attributive to primary attributives noted in section 1a1a1a1b1c1b3, pages 83-84.

so, too, as, no, how, however

1a1a1a1b1c3 Tertiary. These are attributive to secondary attributives.[93]

3a Order. Immediately pre-posed to secondary pre-determiner attributive.

3b Selection

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of secondary attributive quite in class 1a1a1a1b1c2b2a, and too, so, as in class 1a1a1a1b1c2b2c.

b2 Constituents

not

not too big a place
not so fine a person
not as remarkable a thing

1a1a1a1b2 Pre-posed attributives to substitute subject-heads.[94, 95]

---

[93] One may analyze the attribution of not as applicable to the secondary-primary combination rather than to only the secondary attributive. This would give an accumulative pattern as in the primary post-determiner attributives.

[94] These pre-posed attributives must be distinguished from the pre-determiner attributives noted above. In the case of pre-posed attributives occurring only with substitutes (see page 86) there is an overlapping of distinction largely due to the problem of terminology.

[95] There is another class of attributive expressions which may

1a1a1a1b2a Primary. These are attributive to the substitute subject.

a1 Order. Pre-posed to substitutes, with the exception of enough which occurs in post-posed position.

a2 Selection

2a Adjectives

a1 Limiting

all, both

All these will do it.
Both these can see him.

a2 Qualitative[96]

Poor little me has to do it all.

2b Adverbs.[97] The following list is illustrative only.

---

precede a subject expression, whether a substantive or substitute. These consist of adjective, 1st verbal and 2nd verbal phrases, e.g. Afraid of all the turmoil, he left; Having rushed off, he neglected to kiss her goodbye; and Irked by such behavior, he resigned. Such expressions are not, however, limited to initial position nor are they necessarily related to the subject. In fact, their total range of distribution coincides with so-called 3rd type attributives to the verb (see pp. 136 ff.).

[96] This is a very rare pattern occurring only with special rhetorical context and intonation pattern.

[97] The sub-classes of selective conditioning for this pattern are numerous, arbitrary, and complex. No attempt is made to make a detailed statement.

1a1a1a1b2a2b (cont.)

practically, exactly, precisely, almost, hardly, rather, only, as, so, how, too, however, truly, nearly, completely, absolutely, much, not, quite, actually, utterly, about, extremely, enough, mostly.

practically all, precisely who, hardly any, rather few, too few, exactly what, few enough, however many, almost any, etc.

2c Prepositional phrase [98]

By no means all will try it.
At least some are ready for the deal.

2d Substantive expression. These are limited to expressions of quantity.

a great deal, a lot, a bunch, a fraction, etc.

a great deal more, a lot fewer, a bunch more, a fraction less, etc.

1a1a1a1b2b Secondary

b1 Order. Pre-posed to primary pre-posed attributives to substitutes.

b2 Selection. These are limited to adverbs of degree of the same type as section 1a1a1a1b1c2b2, page 84.

almost, practically, not, quite, just, very, altogether, pretty, really, etc.

[98] This is a very limited pattern.

1a1a1a1b2b2 (cont.)

almost all these, very much more, practically all this, altogether too many, just about ten, really very few, etc.

1a1a1a1b3 Post-posed attributives to subject.

3a Order. Immediately following the subject head. The only intervening words are in turn endocentric to the post-posed attributive or constitute other post-posed attributives.

3b Selection

b1 Adjectives

1a Conditioners. Occurrence of substantive or substitute subject-head.

1b Constituents

b1 Adjectives which are highly restricted in the number and types of permitted combinations. The following are illustrative of the principal constituents and constructions:

due, politic, extraordinary, immemorial, incarnate, almighty, plural, proper, last, everlasting, enough, previous, general, martial, plenipotentiary, galore,

money due, body politic, ambassador extraordinary, time immemorial, devil incarnate, God almighty, first person plural, Germany proper, January last, life everlasting, food enough, etc.

b2 Adjectives which are productive of many

1a1a1a1b3b1b2 (cont.)

combinations, involving (1) expressions of superlative or unique character (including post-posed attributes to the substitutes compounded with -body, -thing, and -one) and (2) adjective attributives which are in turn modified by post-posed attributives:[99]

the finest thing possible; everything conceivable; the one person imaginable; the best style possible; something fine; a dress full of holes; a proposition entirely strange to the men; a man anxious to see him; a person desirous of a job

1a1a1a1b3b2 Adverbs

2a Conditioners. Occurrence of substantive or substitute as subject-head.

2b Constituents. The following types of adverbs:

here, there, too, alone, below, above, ago, why, down, back, decidedly, especially, particularly, surely,

this man here, that there, he too, my father alone, the space below, the arc above, a year ago, the reason why, the time when, this one particularly, etc.

b3 Any 1st verbal or 1st verbal phrase.

[99] Non-restrictive attributives (whether adjectives or verbals), which are always set off by distinctive pause-pitches, are classified with third type attributives to the predicate because of their identical ranges of distribution (see pp. 136 ff.).

1a1a1a1b3b3a Conditioners. Occurrence of substantive or substitute as subject-head.

3b Constituents. Any 1st verbal or 1st verbal phrase of any type verb, but without intervening pause-pitch.

no man living; the wisest man breathing; the person trying to get this done; the boys wishing to go; etc.

b4 2nd verbals

4a Conditioners. Occurrence of substantive or substitute subject-head.

4b Constituents. Any type 2nd verbal, but without intervening pause-pitch.

a man accustomed to this; the text used; the results obtained; the sum required; etc.

b5 Prepositional phrases

5a Attributive to substantive or substitute subject-head.[100]

a1 Constituents. Any type of prepositional phrase.

a piece of bread, a cake of soap, a man of endurance, a person in prison, a jar under the table, a man in white, one in prayer, the place across the water, a man among friends, the man aboard the boat, etc.

---

[100] This pattern is practically unlimited. See pp. 204 ff. for prepositional phrase types. The relative order of different types of prepositional phrase attributives to the head will not be treated.

1a1a1a1b3b5b Attributive to post-determiner bounded adjective attributive.

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of an adjective which normally permits post-posed prepositional phrase attributives. See pages 167 ff. for an analysis of this pattern of prepositional phrase attribution to adjectives in general. This particular pattern of attribution to bounded attributives is comparatively rare. The following examples are illustrative:[101]

> very similar propositions to these, a very different matter from applause, the opposite view to what we like, a different class from what we expected

1a1a1a1b3b6 Substantive phrases.

6a Conditioners. Occurrence of substantive or substitute subject-head.

6b Constituents. These substantive phrases usually constitute quantitative or temporal attributives to the subject-head. The following expressions indicate the various patterns, which are comparatively limited in scope:

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[101] It is possible to conceive of these post-posed attributives as being attributive to the entire substantive expression, conditioned by the occurrence of the particular adjective as bounded attributive, or as merely attributive to the bounded adjective. There is an overlapping of the structures at this point, evidenced by such alternative constructions as a different solution from his and a solution different from his.

1a1a1a1b3b6b (cont.)

an animal this size, a tree that height, a woman her age, his death last week, the paper this morning, a third the number, ten cents a piece, five cents a pound, etc.

b7 Marked Infinitives

7a Conditioners. Occurrence of substantive or substitute subject-head. Marked infinitives of the goal-action type with attributivized head constituting the goal, e.g. the thing to do, the thing to be done are almost unlimited in range of distribution. Marked infinitives of the actor-action type may occur as attributive to almost any personal subject-head expression (a man to do it). Substantive heads which may be attributivized by post-posed marked infinitives and not constitute themselves either the goal of the action or the subject of it, are very restricted and for the most part consist of words of the following class:

ability, ambition, anxiety, aptitude, arrangement, authority, capacity, courage, curiosity, desire, effort, honor, hope, impatience, impudence, labor, leisure, means, need, opportunity, pains, patience, pleasure predilection, presumption, promise, reason, reluctance, right, skill, strength, time, trouble, will, wisdom, wish.

7b Constituents. Any type of marked infinitive of any class of verb.

1a1a1a1b3b7b (cont.)

an object to perform, the thing to have done, the letter to have been listed, the time to go, his ambition to be doing it, his courage to have been facing this danger so constantly, etc.

b8 Clauses marked by conjunctions.

8a Marked clauses with the marker functioning as an integral grammatical unit of the clause. These constitute the so-called relative clauses.

a1 Order. These clauses are post-posed to the subject expression.

a2 Selection

2a Conjunctive markers

a1 Order. These conjunctive markers normally occur first in the clause, except that they may follow the preposition with which they form a relation-axis construction. This prepositional phrase may be attributive to the verb of the dependent clause, as in the man to whom he gave the bill, or attributive to a substantive or substitute, as in a thing, the value of which was doubtful.

a2 Selection

2a Constituents

a1 Personal antecedents

1a1a1a1b3b8a2a2a1 (cont.)

who/whom[102]
whose

a2 Impersonal antecedents

which, where, when, why, whereby,[103] whereof,[103] wherein[103]

a3 Personal or impersonal antecedents

that, 'zero'[104]

2b Grammatical usage.[105] These markers may have the following grammatical usages within their respective clauses:

b1 Subject-head expression

The man who came failed to see it.

---

[102] Whom is generally used for object relationships, but by pressure of occurring first, except after prepositions, and thus appearing in the subject "territory" the tendency is to use who, e.g. who they were looking for.

[103] The use of these is quite rare.

[104] The force of the pattern seems to justify the simplification of the statement by using zero and thus to list here those patterns which omit the relative, rather than to have two classes, one for marked clauses and another for unmarked clauses.

[105] Any one relative may have more than one grammatical usage if followed by more than one clause, or by a clause with multiple predicate expression, as in a drum which he placed on the ground and then began to beat upon, or a place which I detest, but Clarence is very fond of.

1a1a1a1b3b8a2a2b1 (cont.)

There was a man came to see him yesterday.[106]

The value there is in this is dubious.[106]

b2 First attributive to verb.[107]

The fellow whom he struck that blow was soon faltering.

The man whom he wished success turned against him.

b3 Second attributive to the verb

The person whom I saw turned around.

The paper I noticed yesterday is gone now.

b4 Second constituent in prepositional phrase[108]

The man whom he gave the bat to...

---

[106] This use of zero conjunctive is limited to expressions of there is, there are, or it is pattern.

[107] This is a comparatively rare usage. Usually the prepositional alternate of such patterns is used, as in the man he gave the ball to (with zero marker).

[108] It should be noted that sometimes in long clauses the preposition is repeated, the man with whom I was, when a small boy, very intimate with. The conjunction that never occurs with pre-posed prepositions.

1a1a1a1b3b8a2a2b4 (cont.)

The man he gave the bat to...[109]
The man to whom he gave the bat...

b5 Subject of dependent clause of unmarked independent form or dependent form.[110]

The man who I think will do it...
The man I think will do it...
The man whom they commanded to do it...

b6 Equated attributive

He didn't realize the power which he was in the community.
He didn't realize the power he was in the community.

b7 Attributive to verb-head of dependent clause either of independent or dependent form.[111]

The man whom they commanded the soldiers to kill.
The man they commanded the soldiers to kill.

b8 Determiner[112]

---

[109] Note that the preposition never precedes the zero conjunctive marker.

[110] For analysis of independent and dependent form clauses see pp. 190 ff.

[111] This type of procedure of analysis for attributives of dependent clauses could be continued extensively for continuing dependent clauses, but this should be sufficient to indicate the type of patterns.

[112] This is not a very common usage and is always set off by

1a1a1a1b3b8a2a2b8 (cont.)

An escapade, which affair is likely to produce difficulty...
A thing whose value is negligible...

b9 Third attributive to the verb-head.[113]

The place where he stayed was haunted.
The day that I left was rainy.
The time which I was there proved to be a disappointment to many.
The reason why he left...
The place I stayed...
The way the sports were handled was terrible.

1a1a1a1b3b8a2a3 Modulation. Clauses which are set-off by pause-pitch are non-restrictive. Those without pause-pitch as modulatory markers are restrictive. That only introduces restrictive clauses. These conjunctions are normally atonic and do not carry the intonation peg, except when immediately preceding a pause-pitch, as in the man who, when he..., is a failure, and a person that, provided this..., could easily succeed.

---

pause-pitch. Zero markers may not occur as determiners.

[113] The conjunctions where, when, and why may only occur as 3rd attributives within their respective clauses and be attributive to expressions of place, time, and cause, respectively. The compound markers whereby, whereof, whereupon, and wherein are of course limited to third attributive usage.

1a1a1a1b3b8b Marked clauses with marker functioning as immediate constituent in exocentric dependent clause pattern. See pages 190 ff. for detailed analysis of such patterns.

b1 That clauses[114]

1a Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following types of substantive expressions as subject-head:

hope, desire, assurance, persuasion, belief, evidence, idea, bargain, principle, fact, circumstance, fear, anxiety, dread, question, feeling, doubt, opinion, conviction, wish, impression, sign, promise, guess, ultimatum, saying, intimation, word, oath, etc.

1b Constituents. Any type of that clause.[115] That may be actualized by a zero alternate.

my hope that he shall arrive
the fact that he is here
our fear he will come to late
an impression they are still waiting

---

[114] These clauses may be classed as appositive clauses due to the so-called substantive value of the that clause which may function as a subject expression, but it seems preferable to class these clauses here due to the analogous relationship to the subject-head words paralleling that of verbs and adjectives employing similar that clauses as attributives. See pp. 122 and 166 for analysis of these patterns.

[115] The relative usage is of course excluded by the heading of this section.

1a1a1a1b3b8b2 Whether, if clauses

2a Conditioners. Occurrence of words of question, doubt, inquiry, investigation, etc. as subject-head expressions.

2b Any clause pattern with whether or if. See pages 190 ff. for the analysis of these patterns. If, however, is comparatively rare in this usage.

The question whether he will come...
The question if he is here raises other problems.
The investigation whether he ever did that...

1a1a1a1b3b8b3 Clauses with conjunctive markers after, before, since, till, until, while.

3a Conditioners. Occurrence of expressions of time as subject-heads.

3b Constituents. Any clauses introduced by after, before, since, till, until, while as post-posed attributives to subject-head.[116]

The time after you left was filled with...
The time until he arrived...
The week while we were there...
The year since he left...

1a1a1a1b3b8b4 Than and as clauses. Attributive to expressions with as, so, such, same in the

---

[116] These clauses are obviously closely parallel to those noted on page 97 above. The basic distinction is with regard to function within the dependent clause.

1a1a1a1b3b8b4 (cont.)

case of as, and expressions of comparison in the case of than. These clauses permit various types of extensive anaphoric zero substitution. For analysis of these patterns see pages 190 ff.

a finer man than I have ever seen
as remarkable a person as ever came here
the same number as he predicted

1a1a1a1b4 Appositive attributives

4a Order. These are almost always post-posed. The following illustrative examples of pre-posed type are rare: a dreamer, Paul always...; a catholic and a zealot, he was not to be...

4b Selection

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of substantives, substitutes, clauses, prepositional phrases with dependent form clause as second constituent, marked infinitives and 1st verbals as subject-head. Appositives, however, with any but the first two classes are rare.

b2 Constituents

2a Substantives. The following examples are illustrative of the various types:

Jones, the baker, is a fine fellow.
He came down here at sixty miles an hour,
a silly and foolish thing to try.
His difficulty, namely,[117] the attempt of

1a1a1a1b4b2a (cont.)

Jones and Co. to sue him, is fortunately...
Any so-called "quoted" word, phrase, or form[118]

the word aesthetic
the phrase cheese it
the morpheme ism

Richard the third; a country all his own; Hawaii, the cosmopolitan; John the Baptist; The steamer America; Professor Johnson;[119] Saints Peter and Paul; this, our hour of danger; we the people; you Canadians; Can she hear us, the old hag of his? He's a success, that Mr. Johnson.

2b Substitutes. These are of limited patterns and comparatively rare in usage.

We two will try it.
We four should be able to do it.
You all can try again.
The foreigners, namely, those in the park...
The people, that is, any one who wants to...

---

[117] Appositives may be introduced by extra-positional or parenthetical elements such as, namely, that is, that is to say, etc.

[118] Morphologically and syntactically such expressions are treated as substantives. Note pluralization of such and also occurrence with determiners.

[119] It will be noted that the function class of the 1st word as regards determiner usage may be determined by the class of the appositive word.

1a1a1a1b4b2c 1st verbals [120]

This solution, namely, trying to stay home...

2d Marked infinitives [120]

His answer, that is, to start immediately,...

2e Marked independent-form clauses [120]

This thing, whatever it is, should be...

2f Dependent-form clauses [120]

This is nature's way apparently, one half working and the other half consuming the benefits.

1a1a1a1b4c Modulation. Certain appositives as noted above in the illustrative examples may occur without being set-off by pause-pitch in what may be termed close apposition. The pattern is largely arbitrary, though the productive types tend to follow the restrictive--non-restrictive dichotomy.

1a1a1a1b5 Semi-predicate attributives

5a Order. These attributives occur in three positions within the clause, post-posed contiguously to the subject-head, within the verb phrase, and final to the clause. The distribution of patterns is as follows:

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[120] These patterns of apposition are rare and are almost always introduced by such parenthetical words.

1a1a1a1b5a1 Contiguous and within the verb phrase

all,[121] both, each

We both will try; we will both try.
They each will try; they will each try.

a2 Within the verb phrase

everyone, most,[122] none,[122] neither[122]

They will everyone try.
We were most of us discouraged.
They were neither of them trying to put it over on us.

a3 Contiguous, within verb phrase, and clause final. These are the so-called emphatic reflexive pronouns.

myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves, oneself[123]

I myself will try it.
I will myself try it.
I will try it myself.

5b Selection[124]

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[121] There is an overlapping of this pattern with that noted for appositives; see section 1a1a1a1b4b2b, page 101.

[122] These words must be attributivized by phrases containing substitutes or substantives congruent with the subject-head.

[123] Oneself is limited almost entirely to clause final.

[124] The semi-predicate value of such attributives is evidenced by

1a1a1a1b5b1 With singular concordance with antecedent

1a With 1st person antecedent

myself

1b With 2nd person antecedent

yourself

1c With 3rd person antecedent

himself, herself, itself, oneself

b2 With plural concordance with antecedent

2a With 1st person antecedent

ourselves, all, both, everyone, most, none, each, neither

2b With 2nd person antecedent

yourselves, all, both, everyone, most, none, each, neither

2c With 3rd person antecedent

themselves, all, both, everyone, most, none, each, neither.

---

their occurring in verbal expressions apart from any stated subject: to do it oneself, to do it each by himself, etc. There is accordingly an overlapping of patterns at this point.

IV.

Predicate Expressions in Independent Transitive Clauses

1a1a1a2 Predicate expressions

2a Verb-heads

a1 Order.[1] The predicate expression follows the entire subject expression (with the exception of certain non-contiguous semi-predicate attributives, but these exhibit certain attributive value within the predicate expression, cf. p. 103, footnote 124) except for the following situations:

1a Single forms of be and have and the 1st element in any verb phrase precede the subject under the following conditions:

a1 In certain questions of the yes-no type

Is John here?
Have they come yet?
Does he want me now?

a2 With certain adverbs and 3rd attributive expressions occurring initial to the clause. These are usually negative or restrictive.

[1] The order is given relative to the only previously analyzed constituent, namely, the subject. The order of further constituents is always given in terms of previous ones.

1a1a1a2a1a2 (cont.)

so, never, not till then, scarcely, neither, rarely, little, less, no more, only once, etc.

So do I like to do it.
Not till then did we discover it.
Little did we realize that he would do that.
Scarcely can I persuade him to help me now.

a3 In questions introduced by

whom or who[2]
how, when, where, what,[2] which[2]

Who did you see?
How did he do it?
Which man did he strike?

a4 In expressions of hope employing may as 1st constituent in the verb phrase.

May he go!
May he have completed this successfully!

a5 When direct quotations, patterning as second attributives, occur initial in the clause. This inversion is optional and in the writer's speech is rather infrequent.

"You haven't been here," said John.
"I'll get you yet," muttered the enraged old fellow.

1a1a1a2a2 Selection

---

[2]Inversion occurs when these words are in non-subject expressions.

1a1a1a2a2a Frame

a1 Single verb-heads

The man helped him.
The people liked it.

a2 Multiple verb-heads

2a With coordinators

a1 With single coordinators[3]

and, or, 'pause-pitch'

He hit the man and shoved his wife into the car.
They killed or at least seriously injured the poor fellow.
They kicked, mauled, and tortured the victim.

a2 With double coordinators

either..or, neither..nor, both..and

He either struck her or attempted to at least.
He neither attempted nor tried to do that.
I both want it done and will see to it that it is finished.

2b Without coordinators. This occurs only between infinitive forms, and is practically limited to situations in which the 1st infinitive is come,

[3] Note that attributives to verb-heads may be attributive to one or more heads, even as in the case of attributives to subject-heads.

1a1a1a2a2a2b (cont.)

go, run, and please.

They'll go ask him.
I'll come do it.
We'll run tell him.
They didn't come do it.

1a1a1a2a2b Constituents

b1 Inter-class selection. Any so-called transitive verb (or in terms of this outline, any verb taking a second type attributive). These are too numerous to require listing. The following clauses are illustrative:

They hit him. They pushed them. The men struck the pole. He fashioned a monster. The people built the bridge. etc.

b2 Intra-class selection.

2a Patterns. Any single form or basic phrase patterns 1, 2, and 5, or anaphoric substitute.[4]

He helps him. He helped him. He has helped him. He is helping him. He has been helping him.

---

[4] Such anaphoric substitutes usually follow their antecedents. Forms of the verb do may substitute for any finite verb expression except the verbs, have, be, will, shall, may, can, must, and ought. Zero anaphoric substitutes may occur for final 1st and 2nd verbals in any basic or secondary pattern, or for any infinitive (but not the marker) in any secondary verb-phrase. See pp. 199 ff. for verb-phrases.

1a1a1a2a2b2b s form and non-s form[5]

b1 s form occurs with

1a Any singular subject-head except where personal substitutes are employed for the speaker and hearer.

1b Plural subject heads of the following classes:

b1 Single heads[6]

1a Expressions which contain numerals but which may be regarded as sums rather than series.[7]

The frightful twenty years on Devil's Island makes any man lose his finer self.
Three quarters of the institution is still in existence.
Thirty miles tires the horse too much.
A hundred stripes doesn't equal the other penalty.
Five minutes sometimes makes the difference between life and death.

[5] This distinction is not found with the verbs used as first constituent in verbal phrases (e.g. may, can, will, etc.), except in the case of have, be, and do.

[6] The classification of such words as seeds, summons, commons, measles, dynamics, economics, etc. depends upon one's treatment of these in the morphology.

[7] Such subject-heads are often separated from the verb by postposed attributives and rarely occur with the determiners these and those.

1a1a1a2a2b2b1b1a (cont.)

One hundred dollars buys the horse.

1b Proper names in plural form

The United States, the Times(newspaper), the Eumenidies, the Arabian Nights, etc.

b2 Multiple coordinate heads

2a Multiple heads bounded by a single determiner and referring to a composite unit. The following are illustrative:

the bread and butter, a needle and thread, this pestle and mortar, that brace and bit, the object and purpose.

The brace and bit does the trick.
A needle and thread saves the situation.

2b Multiple heads not bounded by a single determiner, but nevertheless capable of identifying a composite, unitary referent. The following expressions are illustrative:

The power and the strength of this program obliges me to stop here.
Truth and justice demands it.
Trial and error strengthen the argument.
Two and two makes four.
Poetry and eloquence demands first place in his course.

2c Multiple subject-heads combined by or or nor.

1a1a1a2a2b2b1b2c (cont.)

Either Jim or Bill does the work.

Neither Smith nor his friends wants the job.

1a1a1a2a2b2b2 Non -s form[8] occurs with

2a Any plural subject expression

2b Singular subject-heads of the following classes:

b1 Group nouns[9] of the following type:

administration, admiralty, aristocracy, army, assembly, association, audience, board, body, brace, bulk, cabinet, camp, cattle, cavalcade, class, clergy, club, commission, committee, community, company, conference, congregation, constituency, corps, council, country, couple, court, crew, crowd, detachment, directory, dozen, electorate, enemy, family, fish, firm, fleet, flock, foe, force, game, gang, gathering, generation, gentry, government, group, guard, herd, horse (cavalry), host, household, hundred, jury, kind, majority, military, million, multitude, ministry,

[8] This may also be called the common form, which is identical in form to the infinitive except for the verb be.

[9] This is especially the case when a plural substantive occurs in a post-posed attributive expression, e.g. The first group of teachers were always complaining.

1a1a1a2a2b2b2b1 (cont.)

mob, navy, nobility, number, offspring, opposition, pair, parish, part, party, peasantry, people, populace, population, posterity, press, priesthood, procession, proletariate, prosecution, rabble, race, regiment, remainder, remnant, retinue, royalty, school, score, senate, set, sex, society, sort, staff, stock, swarm, thousand, throng, town, tribe, whole, yoke, youth.

b2 Subject expressions with post-posed attributives containing plural substantives or substitutes. Such post-posed attributives are frequently introduced by, of, together with, with, as well as, no less than, like, but, except, etc.

Everyone of these men consider...
The captain together with all his crew agree that...
The major as well as his lieutenants are...
He like other men want...
Nobody but Bill and John think that...

b3 Singular subject expressions which have multiple attributives of such a qualitatively distinct value as to cause the subject expression to identify a multiple referent. The following examples are illustrative of this rather limited pattern:

The physical and spiritual world are quite diverse.

1a1a1a2a2b2b2b3 (cont.)

The intellectual and physical plane of men's reactions have little in common.

The historical and descriptive analysis of a language show certain striking divergencies.

b4 Independent personal substitutes of the speaker and hearer, except for the verb be which possesses a suppletive form am for the present, when the substitute I is employed.[10]

1a1a1a2a3 Phonetic change. The listing of the phonetic alternates of the so-called auxiliary verbs belongs to the morphology. All such forms are optional in use, but there is a limit to the range of optional choices. The words have, has, had, am, are, is, will, would, does,[11] and did[11] have alternate shorter forms with and without syllabic. Forms with syllabic may follow any word. Non-syllabic forms are largely restricted to use with personal substitutes except for the non-syllabic alternates of has and is, which may be enclitic to any type of previous word.

1a1a1a2b Attributives to the verb-head

b1 1st type attributive

1a Order. The 1st type attributive normally follows the verb-head and precedes the 2nd type

[10] The analysis of the usage with was is largely dependent upon the morphological statement of this form.

[11] Note the sandhi alternate forms for does and did, in such expressions as, How's he do it? When'd he do it? Where'd he put it? When's he do that? Which's he do first? etc.

1a1a1a2b1a (cont.)

attributive. Only rarely by transposition or inversion does the 1st type attributive occur first as Whom did they give the watch? Regularly the prepositional construction is employed in such cases.

1b Selection

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of (1) one of the following verbs as verb-head,[12] and (2) a 2nd type attributive.

accord, address, administer, admit, advance, advise, afford, allocate, allot, allow, answer, appoint, apportion, arrogate, ask, assign, avail, award, bake, bear, begrudge, bequeath, bet, bleed, blow, boil, book, buy, bring, build, burn, cable, call, carry, carve, cash, cast, catch, cause, certify, charge, choose, chuck, coin, concede, cook, copy, cost, create, cut, deal, define, deny, design, devise, do, dot, drop, drive, embroider, enclose, ensure, entrust, envy, explain, fan, fashion, feature, feed, fetch, figure, fill, fin, fix, fling, float, fly, fold, forbid, foreclose, foretell, forfeit, forge, forgive, fork, form, formulate,

[12] It will be noted that there is quite a range of semantic distinction with the various verbs of this class. The 1st type attributive includes such constituents as have been classified as indirect object, dative, 1st of a double accusative, etc. But the parallelism of distribution is sufficiently great as to justify classifying these together. Substitute expressions employing prepositional phrases or so-called goal-action constructions having the same constituents do, however, make possible the division of these verbs into various sub-classes.

1a1a1a2b1b1 (cont.)

forward, frame, fry, fulfill, furnish, gain, gainsay, gather, get, give, go, grab, grant, grill, grind, grudge, guarantee, hand, hew, hit, hold, hope, impose, indulge, inform, inhibit, instruct, insure, intend, invoice, iron, kick, kill, kiss, knit, lead, leave, lend, lose, make, mean, offer, pay, pardon, pass, permit, play, prepare, prescribe, present, procure, produce, promise, provide, pour, reach, read, recount, refuse, reimburse, remit, render, restore, return, run, save, secure, send, serve, set, show, sing, spare, stint, strike, supply, take, teach, telegraph, telephone, tell, throw, transmit, turn, vote, weigh, win, wire, wish, write, yield.

They accorded her a place.
They advanced him some money.
They allotted him a farm.
They asked him a question.
They awarded him a medal.
They bought him a piece.
They cashed him a check.
She cooked them a meal.
She designed her a dress.
They envied him his job.

b2 Constituents

2a Substantives. These are regularly personal in reference and normally limited to bounded attributives.

1a1a1a2b1b2a (cont.)

They gave the man a quarter.

2b Substitutes

b1 Personal definites and reflexives. See pages 45 ff. for complete list and analysis. The alternate so-called objective forms occur for me, him, her, us, them.

They asked her a question.
He gave himself an advantage.

b2 Limiting substitutes. See pages 52 ff. for complete list and analysis. It must be noted, however, that with rare exceptions the 1st attributive tends to be personal in reference.

They offered these a job.

b3 Possessive personals (see pp. 53, 54).

They gave mine a bath.

b4 Reciprocals [13]

Each other, one another

They gave each other a present.
They wished one another success.

2c Marked clauses introduced by whoever, whomever, whosoever, whomsoever, whosesoever, whichever, whichsoever, whatever, whatsoever.

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[13] The uniqueness of this pattern, the indivisibility, and the unitary function place these words on the borderline between words in syntactic pattern and compounds. The absence of definite phonological criteria leaves these expressions somewhat of a problem.

1a1a1a2b1b2c (cont.)

The last five markers may occur only in determiner relationships. This is a comparatively rare pattern.

He gave whomsoever he judged guilty the privilege of paying up sometime later.
He offered whatever man might dare to, the chance to win all or lose all in the one master encounter.

1a1a1a2b2 2nd type attributives to verb-head.

2a Order. 2nd type attributives follow the 1st attributive and the verb-head except when they occur initial in the clause as (1) interrogative substitutes or with interrogative determiners (in the case of substantives), as in Whom did you see? and What man did you meet? or (2) in exclamatory sentences as, What a fine horse you have!

2b Selection

b1 Conditioners. Any so-called transitive verb, taking as it does a "direct" object (or second attributive). These verbs are classified on the basis of occurrence of such second type attributives. (These verbs are too numerous to require listing.)

He saw the man.
They killed the animal.
The party scaled the mountain.

b2 Constituents

1a1a1a2b2b2a Substantives.[14] These may be any substantive expression listed under subject-head expressions, with the restriction that pre-posed attributives do not occur.

2b Substitutes. These include personal definites (me, us, him, etc.), limiting (this, that, some, few, etc.), relative-interrogative (who, which, what, etc.), personal possessives (mine, ours, his, etc.), emphatic-reflexives (myself, oneself, ourselves, etc.), and reciprocals (one another, each other).[15]

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[14] Post-posed attributives to 2nd type attributives may be non-restrictive and at the same time not set off by pause-pitch (in contrast to the regular pattern occurring with the subject-head expression). Note the following: burn her alive, drink his coffee black, wear his hair long, eat the meat raw. Note the two meanings in such an expression as drink it dry; one notes the extent to which the liquor is drunk, and the other denotes the type of liquor consumed. (A similar pattern occurs with 2nd constituents in prepositional phrases, with his hands stiff, with his foot outstretched, etc.) There is an almost indistinguishable shading from (1) this pattern of post-posed attributives modifying 2nd attributives of the verb to (2) the pattern of dependent-form clauses noted on pp. 130 ff., e.g. likes the flowers stiff, had his answer ready, catch it hot, wear his coat threadbare, etc.

[15] Very rarely does a substitute, except those compounded with -thing, -body, and -one, occur as 2nd attributive following a substantive as 1st attributive.

Special patterns with it should be noted. It may have as contiguous or non-contiguous post-posed antecedents, (1) marked or unmarked clauses, as in have it that he should, put it that he..., take it that, regret it very much that, take it he left, etc. or (2) non-contiguous post-posed marked infinitives, as in find it in his heart to help, have it in his power to do it, owe it to the truth to see, etc.

1a1a1a2b2b2b (cont.)

He saw me.
They hit these.
The woman chose mine.
He braced himself.
The people encouraged each other.

2c 1st verbals

c1 Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb-head.[16]

abhore, acknowledge, advise, attempt, avoid, bear, begin, calculate, cease, choose, commence, confess, contemplate, decline, defer, delay, deserve, despair, detest, disdain, doubt, dread, endure, enjoy, entail, escape, evade, expect, facilitate, fail, fancy, fear, feign, finish, forbear, forget, hate, help, include, insist, intend, learn, like, love, mean, mention, mind, miss, necessitate, need, neglect, omit, persist, postpone, practice, prefer, propose, purpose, put off, recollect, refuse, regret, relish, remember, renounce, repent, report, resent, risk, shirk, shun, stand, stop, succeed, suggest, teach, try, urge, venture, withhold.

abhore doing it, acknowledge having risked it, advise attempting it, avoid

[16] Other verbs such as continue, stop, begin, finish, leave off, give up, commence, delay, fail, get, etc., may be classed here, but may also be classified as intransitive verbs with the -ing verbal as 3rd type attributive, e.g. as in the expression went walking.

1a1a1a2b2b2c1 (cont.)

having been detected, confessed seeing him, etc.

c2 Constituents. These may be any 1st verbal, single or phrasal, and may have as attributives any type occurring with the verb-head of that class. Note such types as I dislike being sick and He fears being poor in his old age.

1a1a1a2b2b2d Infinitives

d1 Marked infinitives

1a Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb-head.[17]

attempt, bear, beg, begin, choose, commence, continue, dare, decline, deign, delay, deny, deserve, desire, determine, disdain, dread, elect, endeavor, expect, fail, fear, forbear, forget, get, hate, have, hope, intend, learn, like, loathe, long, love, manage, mean, need, neglect, observe, offer, omit, prefer, pretend, prepare, profess, promise, propose, purpose, refuse, regret, remember, resolve, say, scorn, seek, start, strive, swear, think, threaten, try, undertake, want.

1b Constituents. Any marked infinitive with single or phrase second constituent.

[17] As in the case of 1st verbals as 2nd attributives, certain verbs such as continue, begin, commence, cease, start, etc., may be classified as intransitive with 3rd attributives.

Some verbs such as know may only take marked infinitives when these are introduced by correlative conjunctions, know whether to do it or not.

1a1a1a2b2b2d1b (cont.)

begged to go, desired to leave, attempt to be seeing it, wanted to have been trying, hate to be gone, etc.

d2 Unmarked infinitives

2a Conditioners. Occurrence of hear, help, and let as verb-heads in the following patterns.

He helped do it.
He let go of her hand.
I heard say that they went.[18]

2b Constituents. Any single unmarked infinitive may be attributive to help, a few infinitives occur with let, and only say occurs with hear.

1a1a1a2b2b2e Clauses with conjunctive marker

e1 Order. These normally follow the verb-head. Clauses introduced by that and whether may occur initially, though rarely so.

That this be done for our community I urge upon you all.
Whether or not he wants to do this I question.

e2 Selection

2a Conditioners

[18] This construction heard say... can be interpreted as a transitive verb followed by a dependent-form clause, but with zero (and indefinite) subject, e.g. heard (them) say...

1a1a1a2b2b2e2a1 Inter-class selection. Occurrence of the following verbs as verb-head.

1a For that clauses

a1 Intra-class selection

1a With finite verb in that clause

admit, agree, believe, boast, conclude, deny, desire, determine, discover, doubt, dread, dream, fear, feel, hear, hope, imply, infer, insist, judge, know, mean, observe, perceive, question, recall, relate, remember, reply, report, say, see, show, suppose, teach, tell, think, understand, wonder.

He admitted that he went.
He thought that they understood.

1b With unmarked infinitive[19] form as verb-head in that clause.

ask, command, insist, urge, move, exhort, demand, instruct.

I ask that he be demoted.
I command that he be removed.
I move that he be elected.
He demanded that he come.

[19] These forms have been traditionally treated as subjunctive. However, they are in all respects formally identical with unmarked infinitives (i.e. infinitives without to), and hence there seems to be no descriptive justification for setting up a series of subjunctive forms.

1a1a1a2b2b2e2a1b For zero-marked clauses

b1 Intra-class selection

1a With a finite verb in zero-marked clause. These are the same verbs as conditioners listed for that clause above, section 1a1a1a2b2b2e2a1a1a, with the exception of wonder and beg.

He admitted he went.
He thought they understood.

1a1a1a2b2b2e2a1b1b With unmarked infinitive form as verb-head of zero-marked clause. These are the same verbs as conditioners listed for that clauses above, section 1a1a1a2b2b2e2a1a1b, page 122.

I moved he be elected.
They insisted he leave.

1a1a1a2b2b2e2a1c For clauses introduced by if, how, when, whether, which, who, where, why, however, whoever, whatever, whichever, whosever, whosoever, whatsoever, whichsoever, and whosesoever, occurrence of verbs such as:

ask, question, wonder, doubt, hear, see, etc.

I asked if her mother had gone.
I wondered how she would ever do it.
I hear why he came.
I see what they want to show me.

1a1a1a2b2b2e2a2 Intra-class selection for all 2nd attributive marked clauses.

1a1a1a2b2b2e2a2a Tense sequence. According to the classification of tense forms into primary, intermediate, and secondary (see below), the tense and phrase forms of the attributive clauses are regulated as follows: Primary, intermediate and secondary classes may be attributive to primaries; intermediate and secondary classes (only very rarely primary) may be attributive to intermediates; and except for statements of habitual or universal occurrence only the secondary class is attributive to secondaries.

a1 Primary class of tense (and phrase) forms.

1a Present tense form of any single verb.

1b Present forms of 1st constituent of the following verb-phrases.

1. be- plus 1st verbals (patterns 2 and 6)
2. be- plus 2nd verbal of any verb (pattern 3)
3. do- plus unmarked infinitive (single) of any verb.[20]
4. shall, will, can, may, must, ought, had (better), and better plus any infinitive, single or phrasal with which these may occur (see pages 199 ff. for complete analysis of this pattern).

[20] Phrasal unmarked infinitives (e.g. be going) only occur after infinitive form of do in expressions of command, (e.g. Do be going!)

1a1a1a2b2b2e2a2a2 Intermediate class of tense (and phrase) forms. Present tense form of the 1st constituent of the following phrases:

have- plus 2nd verbals (patterns 1, 4, and 5)

a3 Secondary class of tense (and phrase) forms.

3a Past tense form of any single verb

3b Past tense forms of 1st constituent of the following verb phrases.

1. have- plus 2nd verbals (patterns 1, 4, and 5)
2. be- plus 1st verbals (patterns 2 and 6)
3. be- plus 2nd verbals (pattern 3)
4. do- plus unmarked infinitive (single) of any verb.
5. shall, will, can, may, must, ought, had (better), better plus with any infinitive, single or phrasal with which these occur (see pages 199 ff. for complete analysis of these patterns).[21]

1a1a1a2b2b2f Dependent-form clauses

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[21] This statement is the normal pattern. Special situations may give rise to exceptions to this usual type of sequence. For example, primary class forms are attributive to verb-heads of secondary class in expressions which denote that which is customary, habitual, characteristic, or universally true, as in: He asked when the train starts; He said that he is habitually late; He said she plays beautifully; He said the world is round, etc.

1a1a1a2b2b2f1 Order. These regularly follow the verb-head.

f2 Selection

2a With marked infinitive as verb-head of the dependent clause

a1 Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb-head of the independent clause:

1a Verbs which occur predominately with equational clause type as attributives:

acclaim, account, acknowledge, admit, apprehend, approve, assert, avow, behold, believe, betray, boast, call, certify, compute, conceive, conclude, confess, confirm, conjecture, consider, count, crown, declare, deem, demonstrate, denounce, deny, describe, discover, entitle, esteem, fancy, feel, grant, guess, hail, hear, hold, imagine, judge, know, maintain, name, nominate, observe, own, perceive, proclaim, profess, pronounce, prove, rate, reckon, recognize, regard, remember, report, represent, repute, show, style, subscribe, suppose, suspect, swear, take, term, think, understand, vouch, warrant.

1b Verbs which occur almost equally with all types of attributive clauses:

accustom, adjure, advise, allow, appoint, ask, authorize, bear, beg, beseech, bid,

1a1a1a2b2b2f2a1b (cont.)

bind, bring, cause, charge, choose, command, commission, compell, counsel, constrain, dare, defy, desire, dictate, direct, disincline, dislike, dispose, embolden, empower, enable, encourage, enforce, enjoin, entice, entreat, expect, exhort, fear, forbid, force, get, goad, help, incite, incline, induce, impell, implore, importune, instigate, invite, lead, like, make, motion, move, oblige, order, permit, persuade, pray, prefer, press, prompt, provoke, put, recommend, request, require, sentence, solicit, stimulate, stir, suffer, summon, teach, tempt, trust, urge, want, warn, wish.

1a1a1a2b2b2f2a2 Constituents. Any dependent form clause with marked infinitive as verb-head (see pages 196 ff. for analysis of this pattern).

They advised him to be good.
They believe him to be the finest yet.
They hailed him to be the greatest.
Some report this to be exaggerated.
They suppose him to be well.
He allowed him to go at once.
They chose him to do it.
Someone commanded him to go south.
They enticed her to do it.
They got him to do it.
Someone motioned him to stop.
He urged her to leave beforehand.
They helped her to see it.

1a1a1a2b2b2f2b With unmarked infinitive as verb-head of the dependent clause

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb-head of the independent clause:

see, feel, let, have, make, help, hear, bid, watch, overhear, observe.

b2 Constituents. Any clause of dependent-form type with unmarked infinitive as verb-head (see page 197 for analysis of this pattern).

I saw him go.
We let him do it.
They all helped us get there in time.

2c With 1st verbal, single or phrasal, as verb-head of the dependent clause

c1 Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb-head of the independent clause:

apprehend, bear, catch, conceive, consider, depict, dread, fancy, feel, forebear, get, have, hear, imagine, keep, like, observe, overhear, pardon, permit, picture, prevent, recollect, remember, report, represent, see set, stand, watch.

c2 Constituents. Any type dependent-form clause with 1st verbals as verb-head of the dependent clause.

we saw them going. We caught them trying

1a1a1a2b2b2f2c2 (cont.)

to get in. We pardoned them having done it. We pictured them being tormented. We remember them having been delayed before. They found the child playing in the street.[22]

1a1a1a2b2b2f2d With 2nd verbal as verb-head of the dependent clause

d1 Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb-head of the independent clause:

allow, ask, behold, believe, conceive, consider, depict, desire, expect, fancy, feel, forbid, get, have, hear, imagine, keep, like, make, observe, order, perceive, permit, picture, prefer, remember, represent, request, require, see, suffer, urge, want, watch, wish.

d2 Constituents. Any type of dependent-form clause with 2nd verbals as verb-head of the dependent clause.

They considered him washed out. They desire him killed. They had the picture painted by Magnuson.[23] They preferred the ordeal lengthened. They wanted it kept.

---

[22] A formal ambiguity of patterns may be noted here. This construction may be readily confused with the one in which a substantive is followed by a post-posed restrictive attributive, in which latter case the above sentence would mean that they found the particular child who was playing in the street.

[23] As in the case of the 1st verbals there is an ambiguity be-

1a1a1a2b2b2f2e With zero verb-head of the dependent clause.

e1 Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following types of verbs as verb-head of the independent clause.[24,25,26]

admit, appoint, assume, believe, call, choose,[27] claim, confess, consider, count, create, crown, declare, deem, drive, dub,

tween this pattern and that which consists of a substantive followed by a restrictive post-posed attributive, in which latter case, the above illustration would mean that they had the particular painting which was painted by Magnuson, rather than the fact that they commissioned the work done by Magnuson.

[24] With some verbs the difference in meaning of the dependent clause with or without verb-head is considerable, as in the case of choose, They chose him to be king and They chose him king; however, in a verb such as find, there is considerably less difference, They found him to be happy, and They found him happy.

[25] One must note a gradual transition in concept from those head words which have relatively nothing to do with the actualizing of the state described in the second constituent of the dependent clause, as in They believed him happy, to those head words which may be regarded as stating the actualizing force of such a state, as in They chose him king or They made him happy.

[26] Some of the following words such as consider, count, believe, claim, deem, etc. occur most often with it as subject of the dependent clause and with final antecedent for it, as in, They consider it unwise for him to do that; They believe it foolish to be mixed up in that sort of a thing.

[27] Note the obvious contrast between this pattern and that with 1st and 2nd type attributives: They chose him king, and They chose him a wife.

1a1a1a2b2b2f2e1 (cont.)
elect, enroll, esteem, fancy, feel, find, get, have, hold, imagine, judge, keep, lay, leave, make, need, order, proclaim, prove, put, regard, render, see, set, sleep, spread, think, turn, understand, want, wish.

e2 Constituents. With any type dependent form clause with zero verb-head (see page 198 for analysis of this pattern). The following are illustrative of this type of expression:

believe him dead, call him great, count his master a violent ruler, believe him insane, imagine him hungry, consider him ignorant, keep him hungry, get him mad, raise his head high, cry herself sick, beat him black and blue, sing himself hoarse, walk himself weary, take the men prisoners, style himself an officer, set him free, struck them dumb, shoot him dead, toast it brown, wash it white, paint the town red, do him proud,[28] etc.

1a1a1a2b2b2g Any expression constituting a direct quotation.

g1 Order. These normally occur in post-verb position, and as such are rarely separated from the verb-head by more than two or three words. They may also occur initial in the clause, but when such is the case they are seldom separated from the verb-head by more than the sub-

[28]See note 14, page 118 for discussion of the resemblance of this pattern to that with post-posed attributives to 2nd attributives.

1a1a1a2b2b2g1 (cont.)

ject expression, which is itself limited to bounded and short pre-posed and post-posed attributives. Inversion of the subject and verb-head may occur as noted on page 106.

g2 Selection. The direct quotation may consist of any word or groups of words.

"Come in," he said.
"Howdy," he replied.
"That is an awful way to do it," he argued.
The men cried out, "Give us the rope here."

g3 Modulation. The quoted expression has its own intonation pattern, the same as it would have in constituting a complete linguistic utterance or portion of it, in non-quoted context, except that when the quoted expression is non-final, a non-final intonation pattern is usually employed and it is set-off by pause-pitch, and of course one of the elements of this pause-pitch is the non-final intonation on the last intonational segment.

1a1a1a2b2b2h Adverbs patterning as 2nd attributives.

h1 Order. These always occur in post-verb position.

h2 Selection

2a So

a1 Conditioners. Occurrence of verbs of the following class:

1a1a1a2b2b2h2a1 (cont.)

say,[29] tell, think, hope, suppose, fear, suspect, state, believe, dream, imagine, inform, pray, trust, understand.

He said so. He thought so. They hoped so. They imagined so. They prayed so.

2b Not[30]

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence with the following verbs:

hope, think, suppose, fear.

I hope not. They think not. The people suppose not. I fear not.

1a1a1a2b2b2i Prepositional phrases[31]

i1 Order. These always occur post-verb.

i2 Selection. The following are illustrative of this rare usage:

I desired till the next day.
He allowed them till ten o'clock.

---

[29] The verb say is generally transitive. This use of so with say shows distinct parallelism to the 2nd attributive usage. Moreover, so does not define the manner of the saying, or of any other verb noted above, but rather defines the state of the referent supplied by the context.

[30] Not as a third attributive always occurs within a verb phrase. In this use of not it is always post-verb, having the same pattern value as the 2nd attributive, with distinct parallelism to the usage of so.

[31] This is a very rare pattern.

1a1a1a2b3 Alternating attributives.[32]

3a Order. Alternating attributives occur immediately before or after 2nd attributives if these are substantives, and occur after 2nd attributives if these are substitutes of the personal definite class.

They threw the man out. They threw out the man. They threw him out.

3b Selection

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[32] It is obvious that this pattern, particularly when the alternating attributive is an adjective, is similar to dependent-form clauses as second attributives with zero verb-head (see pages 130 ff.), compare make the man diligent (the dependent clause pattern), with make good his promise and make his promise good with "alternating attributive". On the other hand it is impossible to overlook the parallelism of patterning between the alternating adjective attributives and the alternating adverbial attributives. Certainly to push the door open and to push the door out are parallel. But this adverbial attributive is too closely parallel to the 3rd type attributive expression (compare he put the man out and he put the man in the gutter) and too intimately associated with the verb to postulate all such expressions as being 2nd type attributives in which the adverb only forms an exocentric pattern with the subject-head, and this in turn is attributive to the verb-head. In other words, the alternating attributive stands in an intermediate position in that it is associated with the 2nd attributive in defining its position, state, condition, etc., but shows parallelism to the 3rd type attributives. On the other hand, by virtue of its restricted word-order it does not pattern as a third attributive. Moreover, the definite restrictions of the verb-head and alternating attributives to a limited number of constituents and combinations, while the 2nd attributives in such patterns are unlimited in range of selection, also give evidence of the close association of the alternating attributive to the verb-head.

1a1a1a2b3b1 Adjectives.[33] The adjectives in the following expressions are illustrative of the pattern:

push open the door, make good his promises, make fast the chains, cut short his remarks, lay waste the country, throw wide the doors, let loose a lion.

b2 Adverbs. These are more or less restricted to the type of collocations noted in the illustrative examples below. The following are the adverbs most often employed in this alternating pattern.

in, out, away, back, up, down, on, off, along, across, through, over, under, about, around, round, by, past.

explain away his troubles, live down his reputation, throw me down an apple, put on his hat, look it over, see it through, took the proposition up, hang it up, show it up, pick it up, give it up, put the thing in, set it in, break these off, strip them off, pass it over, quiet the fellows down, pay them off, give it out.

---

[33] Note that these adjectives are associated with particular verb-heads. It should be further noted, however, that when the subject head of a dependent-form clause has heavy post-posed attributives, the 2nd immediate constituent may occur first when the verb-head is zero: make indespensable the value of these islands, took prisoner the captain of the enemy squadron. The non-restricted range of selection of constituents makes this pattern differ from that noted above.

1a1a1a2b4 3rd type attributives to the verb-head[34]

4a Prepositional phrases[35]

a1 Order. Preceding the subject expression, preceding the predicate expression, within the verb phrase, preceding equated attributives, preceding direct goal attributives, and final to the clause. The relative order of prepositional phrases, particularly in final position, is so complicated that no statement will be made other than the general observation of relative order noted under adverbs, page 137.

a2 Selection. These prepositional phrases may be of any type. See pages 204 ff. for analysis of prepositional phrase patterns.

He hit the man with his fist.
They will by all means undertake the work.
They finished the task with nobody any the worse.
They attacked me for helping him.
In this way they accused him of treason.
He is in general quite pleased.

1a1a1a2b4b Adverbs[36]

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[34] These are the so-called adverbial attributives.

[35] These phrases may in turn have as attributives any type of attributive listed for prepositional phrases. See p. 212 for these patterns.

[36] The treatment is in no respect exhaustive. The lists are only illustrative.

1a1a1a2b4b1 Adverb-head[37]

1a Order[38]

a1 In pre-subject position. Adverbs of the following types:

afterwards, again, already, always, before, first, formerly, hereafter, how, lately, newly, now, occasionally, once, presently, quickly, scarcely, secondly, seldom, slowly, sometimes, soon, suddenly, then (temporal), then (sequential), there, usually, when, where, why.

a2 In pre-predicate position. Adverbs of the following types:

about, absolutely, accidentally, accordingly, actively, actually, almost, already, always, angrily, anxiously, boldly, briefly, but, carefully, certainly, clearly, cleverly, completely, continually, correctly, deeply, de-

---

[37] As in the general procedure, first the head is treated and then the attributives to the heads, see p. 140.

[38] The matter of order is arbitrary within the various meaning classes. Complete statements can only be made by lists. A complete survey of usage for every adverb on the bases employed by Buyssens should be made. (E. Buyssens, "The Place of Never and Ever in Present-day English Prose," English Studies, 15, pp. 129-149.) Certain general observations may be made however, The pre-subject and pre-verb-head positions are predominately temporal. In post-verb position the relative order tends to be "manner", "place", and "time", but the relative order of "manner" and "place" is reversed more than that of "manner" or "place" in relation to "time".

1a1a1a2b4b1a2 (cont.)

finitely, distinctly, doubly, entirely, equally, especially, essentially, everywhere, fairly, first, foolishly, formerly, frequently, fully, generally, gladly, greatly, hardly, here, incompletely, indirectly, immediately, innocently, just, kind-of,[39] largely, lightly, much, naturally, nearly, necessarily, never, next, occasionally, often, once, only, particularly, perhaps, presently, sometimes, soon, sort-of,[39] suddenly, then, there, thoroughly, truly, uneasily, unjustly, usually, utterly, willingly, yet (temporal).

They about succeeded him. They absolutely destroyed their enemies. Some accidentally shot him. They continually wanted him to go. These equally desired it. I kind of want it myself.

a3 Within the verb-phrase. These adverbs are the same as for those in pre-verb positions, with the addition of not, ever, and either

They were actually compelling him to go. These have cleverly designed it. They had definitely accorded him a place in the program. They had never ridden it before. They won't ever try it again.

a4 Preceding equated attributives. These

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[39] These compounds possess an atonic (unaccented) second constituent, and show definite adverbial usage in such expressions as the above and also in He is kind of nice, He likes her kind of well.

1a1a1a2b4b1a4 (cont.)
consist primarily of the types of adverbs listed under a2 and a3, above.

He is naturally a very timid person.
She is frequently a pain in the neck.
She is sometimes quite charming.

a5 Preceding attributives. These adverbs are more restricted in number and in frequency of occurrence, this pattern being much rarer in occurrence, than those listed above. The following adverbs are illustrative:

first, then, usually, presently, utterly, accidentally, briefly, somehow, actually, etc.

He struck then the fellow who had intruded. They finish usually the first half only. He felt keenly his inability. They examined critically all the people. He brought out clearly the part that these were to play. He studied attentively the program of procedure.

1a1a1a2b4b1a6 In final position, following equated or direct goal attributives. These adverbs include any of those listed above for various positions, with the exception of the following which do not regularly occur following 2nd attributives or alternating attributives: just, ever, about, hardly, yet (however), quite, almost, never, not, only, really, but, kind-of, sort-of

He saw them frequently. He put it down sud-

1a1a1a2b4b1a6 (cont.)
denly. They planned it carefully yesterday. They destroyed it utterly.

1a1a1a2b4b1b Selection. The selection of the various classes of adverbs has been noted under the analysis of their respective positions of occurrence within the clause. See pages 137-139

1c Phonetic change. The adverb not occurs in three alternate forms: /nt/, with syllabic n; /nt/ with non-syllabic n, and /t/. The first alternate with syllabic n occurs after need,[40] is, was, did, have, has, had, does, should, would, could, might, ought. The second alternate without syllabic n occurs after do,[41] are, were, will.[42] The third alternate, namely t, occurs only after can.

1a1a1a2b4b2 Attributives to adverbs

2a Adverbs

a1 Order. Adverbs precede their heads except in the case of enough which follows.

a2 Selection. The following adverbs may

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[40] The use with need is comparatively less frequent than the alternate possibility of its occurrence with a verb phrase containing a form of the verb do as first constituent and need as second.

[41] Do occurs in an alternate form /dow/ before this alternate of not.

[42] Will occurs in an alternate form /wow/ before this alternate of not.

1a1a1a2b4b2a2 (cont.)

be attributive to various adverbs noted above in lists of 3rd attributives.[43]

how, extremely, probably, as, decidedly, just, really, hardly, however, enough, such, quite, some, much, more, any, only, so, almost, altogether, pretty, rather, truly, too, all, thoroughly, very, no, the[44]

He hit them extremely hard. They did it as rapidly as possible. They did it carefully enough.

2b Substantives

b1 Order. These substantive expressions precede the adverb head.

b2 Selection. These are largely expressions of quantity and degree, of the following general type:

a lot, a great deal, the most, a little, a trifle, a second, ten feet, five yards, etc.

a lot better, a great deal sooner, the most beneficially, a little better, a trifle sooner, ten feet further, five yards nearer, one foot under, a rod above.

1a1a1a2b4b2c Clauses

[43] No attempt is made to list the various sub-divisions of selection for such attributives.

[44] Note the use of the in the more fiercely. This pattern is not parallel to the substantive pattern with determiners.

1a1a1a2b4b2c1 With a conjunctive marker functioning as an integral constituent of the dependent clause. These are limited to expressions of time and place, and are of the following type:

Here where the church stood, a man tried...
Once when the preacher coughed, everyone..

c2 With conjunctive marker not serving as an integral constituent of the dependent clause.

2a That clause attributive to so

He hit him so frequently that he completely destroyed his power of resistance.
He addressed him so that[45] he could then snub him.

2b As clause attributive to adverbial expressions with as, so, same, such. See pages 190 ff. for analysis of the variants of this construction.

He completed the job as fast as he could.
They did it such as we desired.

2c Than clause attributive to adverb with comparative value. See pages 190 ff. for analysis of this construction.

He did it more frequently than the rest.
They did it better than we had anticipated.

1a1a1a2b4b2d Prepositional phrases.

[45] The formula so that is best analyzed analytically, rather than consider as a single syntactic unit.

1a1a1a2b4b2d1 Order. These are post-posed to adverb head.

d2 Selection. The prepositional phrases are generally attributive to derivative adverbs which in their adjectival form also take post-posed attributives. See page 167 for this pattern.

Luckily for him we sent them off.
Unfortunately for all concerned...
Near to the place we decided...
Far from here we thought...

1a1a1a2b4b2e Marked infinitives

e1 Order. These are post-posed to adverb head.

e2 Selection. These marked infinitives are generally attributive to derivative adverbs which in their adjectival form also take post-posed attributives of the marked infinitive type.

He did it sufficiently to be noticed.
He studied it enough to see the difference.
He did it too slowly to get any benefit.

1a1a1a2b4c Substantives as 3rd attributives to verb-head

c1 Order. These may occur in pre-subject position, pre-predicate position, within the verb phrase, preceding equated attributives and final to the clause. The pre-subject position is restricted largely to expressions of time. The pre-predicate and intra-verb-phrase, and pre-

1a1a1a2b4c1 (cont.)

equated-attributive positions are of rarer occurrence and restricted largely to expressions of time. Following the 2nd or alternating attributive, depending upon which occurs last, any type of substantive 3rd attributive expression may occur.

Last week we finished the job.
Next year I'll see him.
My family last month earned a total of 200 dollars.
We have this year exceeded our limit by about one hundred bushels.
He did it a great deal.
He is this week a changed man.

c2 Selection. These substantive expressions are of the types noted in the following illustrative examples:

This will last me a life-time.
He meant this no matter what men may say.
They ran it full speed.
He had it his way.
He gave himself up body and soul.
They saw him face to face.
They faced it both ways.
He took her the first chance.
Draw it back an inch.
He stood it up all night.
He returned it last winter.[46]

[46] Many substantive 3rd type attributives occur more regularly with equational or intransitive sentence types. Note the following, many of which are practically reduced to formulae and compounds:

1a1a1a2b4d Clauses marked by conjunctions

d1 Order. In pre-subject position, pre-predicate position, within the verb phrase and final.[47] Final clauses normally follow other qualifying attributives.

d2 Selection

2a Inter-class. These include clauses introduced by the following conjunctive markers:

before, after, since, because, whether (. .or) if, whereas, when, whenever, whensoever, where, wheresoever, how, however, howsoever, that (purpose), why, though, although, till, until, while, as, than, unless, provided, once, now, for, directly, except, whatever, whatsoever, whoever, whosoever

Before he comes, we must...
These folks, after they have dined, will..
We can, though we are disheartened, try...
I can see him while he is in there.
I'll do it, for I want a change.
Now he has come, this is...

towers head and shoulders, go at it hammer and tongs, come bag and baggage, tooth and nail, hand and foot, hand in hand, arm in arm, sword to sword, hand to mouth, word for word, night after night, day by day.

[47] Clauses in pre-predicate position and within the verb phrase are usually relatively shorter and often zero anaphoric substitutes occur for various constituents of the clause, as in, Anyone when injured will..., These men will, though constantly rebuffed, seek to...

1a1a1a2b4d2a (cont.)

Directly he arrives, we will...
I would do it, except he wants too much.
Whatever his qualifications are, we must not...
Whoever he is, we can't lose that much time.
We did it that he might...
Howsoever fast he may do it, we can...

1a1a1a2b4d2b Intra-class selection. Tense and phrase sequence. The selection of tense and phrase forms as a matter of sequence generally follows the pattern described on pages 124-5 above. There are several specialized types for various conjunctions, however, but only the pattern for if will be treated, as being typical of the methodology and having the greatest number of specialized usages. If clauses.

b1 Simple conditions[48]

1a Not past.[49] Selection

a1 Conditioners. Occurrence in the main clause of any single present tense form of the verb or verb phrases in which the first constituent (with the exception of have) is a present tense form of an auxiliary. (In certain rare instances verb phrases with have may be included

[48] Combinations involving different conditional types is quite frequent. This is only an outline of the principal types.

[49] The classification of past or not past is made upon the basis of the tense and phrase forms of the independent clause.

1a1a1a2b4d2b1a1 (cont.)

here, e.g. If Jim comes by tomorrow, I have helped him.) Should, expressing obligation and not followed by verb phrases beginning with have, is also included here, under what may be called "primary verb forms"

a2 Constituents. The verb-head of the if clause occurs with any of the "primary verb forms" listed above, also any past tense single verb or verb phrases introduced by present tense forms of have, may (permission), should (obligation), or any forms of be or do.

1b Past

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence in the verb of the main clause of any single past tense form, or verb phrase patterns introduced by past tense form of the auxiliaries have, do, and be.

b2 Constituents. The verb-head of the if clause occurs with any single past tense form, or verb phrase introduced by a past tense form of do or be.

If he came, I did it.
If he did come then, I had already gone.
If he was trying, I surely didn't see it.

1a1a1a2b4d2b2 Contrary-to-fact conditions

2a In the present time. Selection.

a1 Conditioners. Occurrence in the main clause of would, should, might, or could followed by any infinitive except those having

1a1a1a2b4d2b2a1 (cont.)
have as 1st constituent.

a2 Constituents. Occurrence in the if clause of were in patterns 2, 3, and 6 (see pp. 199 ff.).

If he were here, I would be helping him.
If they were being threatened, we could be doing something about it.
If I were finished, I should enjoy that recreation.

2b In the past time. Selection.

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence in the main clause of might, would, should, could, or ought with any infinitive possessing have as the 1st constituent of the infinitive phrase.

b2 Constituents. Occurrence in the if clause of had in patterns 1, 4, and 5 (see pp. 199 ff.).

If they had said it, I would have tried...
If he had done it, I would have challenged it.
If he had been guilty of a thing like that, they all should have stopped it.

1a1a1a2b4d2b3 Potential conditions

3a In the present time. Selection.

a1 Conditioners. Occurrence in the main clause of would, should, might, or could followed by any infinitive except those with have as 1st constituent of the infinitive phrase.

1a1a1a2b4d2b3a2 Constituents. Occurrence in the if clause of would, should, might, or could followed by any infinitive except those with have as 1st constituent.

If he should do it, I would.
If I should be getting by, then everyone would be trying it.

3b In the past time. Selection.

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence in the main clause of would, should, could, or might followed by any infinitive phrase with have as 1st constituent.

b2 Constituents. Occurrence in the if clause of would, should, could, or might followed by any infinitive phrase with have as 1st constituent.

If he would have done it, then I could have helped him.
If I should have been caught doing that, I would have been mortified beyond words.

1a1a1a2b4d3 Modulation. All non-final 3rd attributive clauses are set-off by pause-pitch. When final to the sentence the pause-pitch before the clause is less pronounced or may even be absent. The principal distinguishing characteristic is its possession of its own intonational clause pattern.

1a1a1a2b4e 1st verbals.

e1 Order. These occur regularly in initial or final position. Those without double attribu-

1a1a1a2b4e1 (cont.)
tive value may rarely occur in pre-verb position and within the verb phrase, as in the following:

This will, barring accidents, make...
This proposition, granting all its failures, does...

e2 Selection

2a Without double "attributive" relationships. These constitute the so-called "dangling" participles, and also those which have a specialized occurrence in this pattern. These latter in many ways resemble prepositions in function, and others closely parallel the sentence attributives noted on pages 186 ff.

Talking about ghosts, that really scared us.
Granting this much, the proposition...
Speaking of monkeys, this one...
Judging from that, our idea wasn't...

Other words commonly occurring in this pattern are:

supposing, touching, assuming, barring, setting, saving, failing, providing, considering

1a1a1a2b4e2b With double attributive value. Certain first verbal expressions have been traditionally analyzed as attributive to some substantives with in the sentence, e.g. having left there the man continued for some distance. However, as pointed out in footnote 95, page 85, this participial construction is parallel to other 3rd attributive

1a1a1a2b4e2b (cont.)
modifiers and should be so analyzed.

lost ten dollars playing cards, spend time doing that, tore his clothes climbing trees, hurt his knuckles hitting the fellow, set herself to work doing that, wore herself out sewing, waste her time gadding about.

4f Second verbals. These are similar to 1st verbal expressions in type and distribution.

Provided he leaves, I don't care.
He is a pathetic sight loaded down with all that baggage.
Prepared for the worst, he enjoys anything.
Granted he did, then what can we do?

4g Adjective phrases. These are similar to 1st and 2nd verbals in type and distribution.

Sick of the affair we all left.
He left here, anxious to get home early.

4h Dependent-form clauses

h1 Order. These generally occur initial or final in the independent clause.

h2 Selection. These "absolute" expressions, as they are generally called, usually possess verb heads consisting of a 1st verbal, 2nd verbal, or zero substitute. See pages 196 ff. for analysis of dependent-form clauses. The following are illustrative of the various types:

These precautions taken, we undertook to...
All told, this will prompt...

1a1a1a2b4h2 (cont.)

This done, we will then...
The sun having already risen, we commenced...
Jim being gone, we decided...
His money squandered, he began...
Our breakfast over, let's try to get out early.

1a1a1a2b4i Marked infinitives. These infinitives generally express purpose.

i1 Order. Marked infinitives in this construction may occur pre-subject, pre-predicate, and following second or alternating attributives, whichever occurs last. Rarely do they precede alternating attributives or occur within the verb phrase.

i2 Selection. Any type of marked infinitive may occur as 3rd type attributive to the verbhead.

He whipped the horse to teach it a lesson.
To accomplish his purpose he will turn the world upside-down.
They made haste to see him.

V.

Independent Intransitive Clause Types

1a1a1b Intransitive clause types

b1 Subject expression

1a Order. The intransitive sentence subject-head may occur in the same order as that of the transitive sentence type. When, however, 3rd attributive expressions of place, and more rarely time, occur initial, substantives and substitutes, except personal-definite pronouns, may occur immediately post-verb or following the 1st constituent in the verb-phrase if this is a form of the verb be. This inverted order pattern has the connotative value of being more lively and is often associated with modulatory patterns of surprise, exclamation, and various other types of intensity of emotion. However, when this inverted order occurs together with the so-called expletive there (which differs from the demonstrative adverb of place in not having a full stress), there is no such connotative significance. The "inverted" word order is most frequently employed with those patterns of the verb-phrase which have a form of the verb be as 1st constituent and a 1st verbal, single or phrasal, as the 2nd constituent. The subject-head is normally postposed to the 1st constituent, but may occur within the 3rd attributive infinitive phrase, when the

1a1a1b1a (cont.)

latter, contains a form of be and the verb-head consists of such verbs as seem, appear, happen, etc., e.g. There seem to be men coming; There appear to have been some men trying to get in. The following examples are illustrative of various types of inverted order occurring with intransitive clause types (these are in addition to the types of "inverted" patterns occuring with both transitive and intransitive clauses, pp. 105 ff.).

> There[1] was a man trying to remove the lid.
> There's the fellow now.
> In went the others. Off came the heads. Away flew the kite. Below Buffalo are the beautiful Niagara falls. On the left was an old barn. Next to this stood an old-style wagon. Further ahead was another.

1a1a1b1b Selection. The same type of subject expressions, including heads and attributives, occur in intransitive clause types as in transitive. See pages 40 ff.

1a1a1b2 Predicate expression

2a Verb-head

a1 Order. The relative order of the subject and predicate expressions is the same as that of the transitive clause type with the added patterns noted just above under subject expression.

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[1] The occurrence of there with inverted word order in transitive sentence types is relatively rare, and does not regularly occur in the writer's speech.

1a1a1b2a2 Selection

2a Inter-class. These are verbs which may occur without attributives or have only 3rd type attributives. The following list is illustrative:[2]

stop, cease, go, live, finish, leave, escape, continue, roar, come, grow, call, push, swim, ride, walk, tear (away), cut (up), be, move, belong, dwindle, elapse, fare, faint, glitter, intervene, languish, loom, occur, subside, swoon.

2b Intra-class selection. These selections are identical to those listed for the transitive type. See pages 108 ff.

1a1a1b2b Attributives to the verb-head

b1 3rd attributives. These are identical to those listed under transitive sentence type (see pages 136 ff.) with the addition of the following types peculiar to the intransitive pattern.

1a Adjectives.[3] These define the state, condition, quality, etc. of the subject or of some

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[2] As in the case of the transitive verbs no attempt is made to make a comprehensive list. Moreover. it should be noted that there is a great deal of class overlap between so-called transitive and intransitive verbs.

[3] To a certain extent one's morphological analysis will influence the manner in which such adjectives are treated, for these adjectives may be treated as adverbs derived from the corresponding adjectives by zero derivative, and thus being words with alternate derivative forms, one with -ly and the other zero.

1a1a1b2b1a (cont.)
object associated with the action.[4]

a1 Order. These are always post-verb and often occur separated from the verb-head by other 3rd attributives. This is particularly true of attributives stating the condition of the subject.

a2 Selection. Any type adjective may occur in this pattern. The following are illustrative:

> sit motionless, lie down helpless, listen breathless, slip along the wall noiseless and swift, enter the service young, turn away sad, survive almost intact, come home sick, sweep clean, stop dead, buy cheap, pay dear, fight fair, talked fine, walks straight, played wild, played safe, sleeps light, talks big.[5]

b2 2nd verbals

2a Order. This is the same as that listed for adjectives above.

2b Selection. 2nd verbals are restricted largely to defining the condition, state, etc. of the subject of the action, but as in the case of adjectives are attributive to the verb-head, as evidenced in usage without subject expressions.

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[4] These must be treated as attributive to the verb for they may occur in verb expressions without any subject, as in, To go back sick meant disasterous consequences at that time, To sleep light is the best alarm-clock under the circumstances.

[5] There is a gradual shading off of this pattern to that consisting of adjectives as equated attributives. See pp. 162 ff.

1a1a1b2b2b (cont.)

They went equipped. He stared fascinated. They came back wounded. Some passed there unnoticed.

1a1a1b2b3 1st verbals[6]

3a Order. This is the same as for 2nd verbals.

3b Selection. The following are illustrative of the pattern:

He came running. They went on working. They hesitated doing that. Some keep on working. They burst out laughing. He rides sitting down. They couldn't live here doing that. She lay gasping. I sat reading. He teaches standing.

1a1a1b2b4 Substantives. These define the state, condition, etc. of the subject expression, but like the adjective attributives noted on page 155 must be treated as attributives to the verb.[7]

4a Order. These are always post-verb and often occur separated from the verb-head by other 3rd attributives.

4b Selection. Any type substantive expres-

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[6] The line of distinction between this pattern and that in which 1st verbals function as 2nd attributives in transitive constructions is sometimes almost impossible to draw. See note 16, p. 119.

[7] This substantive 3rd attributive must be distinguished from the other 3rd attributive substantive listed on p. 143. The following sentence has both types: He went off this morning a happy man.

1a1a1b2b4b (cont.)
sion, but with limitations as to bounded and postposed attributives.

He died a begger. We parted enemies.
He went off a happy man.
He returned to our town a drunken sot.

4c Modulation. In slow speech there is a tendency to place a pause-pitch before the attributive. Even in fast speech the attributive is usually in a separate intonational phrase. This distinguishes We parted enemies (transitive) in which both parted and enemies are in the same intonation phrase, from We parted enemies (intransitive) in which parted and enemies occur in different intonation phrases, with an intonational junctive between. In very fast speech, however, this distinction may be lost.

1a1a1b2b5 Marked infinitive. In intransitive sentences marked infinitives are not restricted to expressions of purpose, as is generally the case with 3rd attributive marked infinitives in transitive predicate expressions.

5a Order. These are post-verb and may be separated from the verb by other 3rd attributives.

5b Selection

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following types of verbs as verb-head:[8]

[8] It is not always easy to define the degree of purpose involved in such expressions, for many patterns have become mere formulae, as for example, go to do it. Also, as has been noted above, note 17,

1a1a1b2b5b1 (cont.)

ache (to think), agree, appear, aspire, be, come, condescend, consent, conspire, get, go, grieve (to say), grow, happen, incline, live (to see it), object, proceed, rejoice, remain, rise, seem, set, shrink, smile (to hear it), strive, tend, weep.

b2 Constituents. Any marked infinitive.

I ache to think of it, aspire to see him, get to go, go to do it, grow to be a man, object to see it, rejoice to hear, rise to obtain it, seem to do it, tend to go.

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page 120, it is difficult to draw a line of distinction between marked infinitives as 3rd attributives with intransitive verbs and 2nd type attributives with transitive ones. The verbs listed here are not regularly transitive for this pattern, however. On the other hand, to differentiate between the marker to and the preposition to (occurring with unmarked infinitives) is even more complicated. It is best therefore to place these forms together in one class.

VI.

Independent Equational Clause Types

1a1a1c Equational clause type

c1 Subject expression

1a Order. The subject expression has the same order in the clause as that occupied by the subject expression in the transitive clause type (see pages 105 ff.) with an additional type of inversion occurring when certain equated attributives occupy an initial position, as noted below on page 162, section 1a1a1c2b1a1a.

1b Selection. The subject expression may be of any type employed in transitive clause type (see pages 40 ff.).

c2 Predicate expression

2a Verb-head

a1 Order. The verb-head of the equational type has the same relative order to the subject as in the case of the transitive sentence type, with added inversion pattern noted on page 162.

a2 Selection

2a Inter-class. Equational verbs are those with "equated" attributives. These verbs may be conceived of as "equating" to the subject expression the condition, circumstance, form, state,

1a1a1c2a2a (cont.)

etc., described in the equated attributive. This equated attributive must be conceived of as endocentric to the verb-head, for it may occur with the verb expression and without a subject expression, as in, To be happy is what counts in life. To be good is seldom as much desired as to be rich. The following examples are illustrative of equational verbs with typical equated attributives:

> fall short, went hungry, holds good, proves impossible, continue good, turn Christian, run dry, fall ill, get angry, keep well, look healthy, prove true, rank high, rest content, shine clear, taste good, sound pretty, sit tight, smell bad, turn cold, go native, become conscious, seem awful, appear beneficial, be himself, look frail, remain faithful.

2b Intra-class selection. These patterns are the same as for the transitive sentence type (see pages 108 ff.) with the exception of the following:

b1 Agreement as to number. The verb normally shows agreement with the subject-head (i.e. in respect to the occurrence of s or non-s forms), but in equational sentences, if the equated attributive occurs immediately post-verb and the subject-head is not immediately preposed, the agreement may be made upon the basis of the equated attributive, but this is a relatively rare pattern.

> The wages of sin is death.
> All that the people of this country want are money and leisure.

1a1a1c2a2b1 (cont.)

The great resource of such a country as ours are capital and labor.

1a1a1c2b Attributives to the verb-head

b1 Equated attributives

1a Adjectives

a1 Adjective head

1a Order. Equated adjective attributives occur in post-verb position except (1) when attributivized by how (also however in dependent clauses) in interrogative or exclamatory patterns: How pretty is she? or How pretty she is! and (2) when the subject expressions have heavy post-posed, usually restrictive, attributive expressions, as for example, Brave are the men who accomplished so much against such great odds. This inverted order has distinct emotional connotative value.

1b Selection. Any type of adjective.[1] See list given on page 60 for adjectives.

a2 Attributives to adjective head

1a1a1c2b1a2a Adverbs

a1 Order. Preposed to adjectives except in the case of the adverb enough which is always post-posed to its adjective head.

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[1] Zero anaphoric substitutes may occur for such adjectives, or in fact for any equated attributive, under certain contextually conditioned circumstances, as in, Are you hungry? I am.

1a1a1c2b1a2a2 Selection. Adverbs of the following type:[2]

about, absolutely, absurdly, actually, all, almost, altogether, awfully, completely, considerably, curiously, decidedly, distinctly, enough, entirely, equally, especially, essentially, exactly, extraordinarily, extremely, faintly, far, frankly, frightfully, hardly, how, however, impossible, indeed, just, largely, least, less, little, merely, mighty, more, most, much, nearly, needlessly, only, over, particularly, partly, perfectly, practically, pretty, quite, rather, really, simply, slightly, such, sufficiently, terribly, thoroughly, too, tremendously, truly, uncommonly, unexpectedly, utterly, very.

They were about sick. It was absurdly fanciful. It was true enough. You are quite right. He was less appealing. It was pretty[3] awful.

1a1a1c2b1a2b Substitutes

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[2] This list is not exhaustive and does not indicate the various sub-classes of selection.

[3] With all such words which are homophonous with the adjectival form, it may be more convenient, due to the pressure of the overall pattern, to consider them as secondary derivative adverbs with zero adverbializer.

1a1a1c2b1a2b1 Order. Preposed

b2 Selection. These are limited to the substitutes this and that.

Is he that young?
I didn't know she was that sick.

1a1a1c2b1a2c Substantives

c1 Order. Pre-posed to adjective head

c2 Selection. These substantives rarely have any attributives other than bounded ones, and are usually expressions of quantity.

a few months old, fifteen thousand men strong, many times finer, centuries old, breast high, four years old, three miles long.

He was a few months old.
These are many times finer.

2d Marked infinitives

d1 Order. Post-posed to adjective head

d2 Selection

2a Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following types of adjectives as head:

able, adequate, accustomed, ambitious, anxious, apt, armed, ashamed, averse, bashful, bold, bound, careful, clumsy, competent, deadly, delectable, delighted, difficult, disposed, eager, easy, entitled, excellent, fearful, fearless, first, fit, free,

1a1a1c2b1a2d2a (cont.)

glad, good, happy, hopeless, horrible, impatient, inclined, liable, loath, mad, necessary, needful, new, pleasant, pleased, prone, proud, proper, pure, qualified, ready, reluctant, right, slow, solicitous, sorry, strange, sufficient, sure, sweet, tardy, useful, weary, willing, wise, wrong.

Also almost any adjective attributivized by a pre-posed too may have a marked infinitive as post-posed attributive.

too good to do it, too debased to see the difference, too difficult to be undertaken.

2b Constituents. Any marked infinitive.

He was able to do it. accustomed to see, ambitious to get it done, apt to come too soon, eager to arrive, impatient to have finished.

1a1a1c2b1a2e 1st verbals

e1 Order. Preposed to adjective head

e2 Selection. Any type of single 1st verbal, in however a comparatively limited pattern. The following are illustrative:

pouring wet
passing fair
chilling cold
sparkling white

It was pouring wet.

1a1a1c2b1a2e2 (cont.)

The garment was sparkling white.

1a1a1c2b1a2f Clauses

f1 Clauses marked by what, that, whether, if, when, where, who, how, why, which, and zero.

1a Order. Post-posed to adjective head

1b Selection.

b1 Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following types of adjectives as head:

afraid, anxious, aware, boastful, careful, convinced, confident, desirous, doubtful, eager, glad, joyous, mindful, sure, uncertain, wary.

1a1a1c2b1a2f1b2 Constituents. Clauses introduced by what, that, whether, if, when, where, who, which, how, why, and zero.[4]

I am afraid he is here.
He was so boastful that he could do it.
Some were uncertain whether they should go.

f2 Clauses introduced by than or as.

2a Order. Post-posed to adjective head

2b Selection

b1 Conditioners. Expressions with as

[4] No attempt is made to give a comprehensive list of adjectives nor to state all the possible collocations of adjectives with particular types of clauses.

1a1a1c2b1a2f2b1 (cont.)
or so or use of such for the as clause, and expressions of comparison for the than clause.

b2 Constituents. See below pages 190 ff. for analysis of various types of than and as clauses. The following are illustrative:

He is better than we thought.
They are more thoughtful than the others.
He is as quiet as Dick.
He is such as these men described.

1a1a1c2b1a2g Prepositional phrases attributive to equated adjectives.

g1 Order. Post-posed to adjective head

g2 Selection. Prepositional phrases of any type may be attributive to almost any adjective occurring as an equated attributive.[5]

glad of it, short in stature, inferior to him, easy for him to do it, dependent upon him, good with children, proficient at it, exuberant over this, etc.

1a1a1c2b1b 2nd verbals as equated attributives

b1 Order. Post-posed to verb-head

b2 Selection. The following are illustrative examples of this pattern.[6]

[5] The only limitation upon this pattern is that of semantic range of possibilities.

[6] Such verbals must be distinguished in the case of transitive verbs from similar goal-action type sentence formations. The dis-

1a1a1c2b1b2 (cont.)

I am done. He is gone. They are enlisted. I am resolved. It is mounted. It is broken down. It is grown. He is come. He is descended from the van Tills. He is finished. They are buried. His bills are paid. The battle is lost. She is dressed. The seal is attached. The gun was loaded. The door was shut. He is perjured.

1a1a1c2b1c Substitutes

c1 Order. These occur post-verb except who, which, what, whose, which may occur initial in interrogative or exclamatory patterns.

c2 Selection

2a Inter-class. The following classes of substitutes may occur as equated attributives.

a1 Personal-definites.[7] See pages 45 ff. for a complete list.

It is me.
The real character is he who tries...

a2 Possessive. See pages 53-54 for a

tinguishing element is the indication of state, which is equational in contrast to the indication of the process which is goal-action, for example, His bills are paid is normally equational, but His bills are paid by check states the process of the goal-action type. Such 2nd verbals must also be distinguished from completely adjectivized forms listed in note 60, page 66.

[7]It as equated attributive may have the added substitution value of having an adjective as an antecedent, e.g. Though she is shy, she never looks it.

1a1a1c2b1c2a2 (cont.)
complete list.

This is mine. Some are ours. One is John's.

a3 Limiting Substitutes. See pages 52 ff. for a complete list, since these are the same as for subject expressions.

Mine are these. This is something that he can use. The little ones are some of them.

a4 Reflexive-emphatic. See page 103 for a complete list.

He is himself here. They seemed themselves. One can be oneself in a place like that.

a5 Relative-interrogative

who, whoever, whose, whosever, which, whichever, what, whatever.

Who is he? What are these? Whatever are those?

1a1a1c2b1c2b Intra-class selection of subjective-objective form. With the six substitutes which indicate objective usage as contrasted with subjective, the colloquial usage usually involves the selection of objective forms, me, him, her, us, them as equated attributives since these pattern as being in so-called object territory, that is, in post-verb position. Who, on the other hand, when functioning as an interrogative or relative pronoun normally occurs in so-called "subject" territory, and accordingly is found in the sub-

1a1a1c2b1c2b (cont.)

jective form. In purely colloquial contexts the use of the subjective form of any of the personal pronouns (except who) as an equated attributive of the pronouns bears the connotative meaning of stiltedness and pedantry.

1a1a1c2b1d Substantives as equated attributives

d1 Substantive head

1a Order. These occur normally in post-verb position, but may occur initial to the clause with the determiners what or which in interrogative constructions, or with what in pre-determiner position in an exclamatory construction.

Which man is he? What thing is this? What a man he is!

1b Selection

b1 Inter-class. Any type of substantive may occur as an equated attributive (see pages 42 ff. for analysis of substantive types).

He turned traitor. He became a man. This fellow was the boss of the group.

b2 Intra-class selection.

2a Determiner usage. Substantives which are normally bounded in subject position may occur without determiners as equated attributives when the semantic value of the attribution to the head is that of quality to substance. Note the following illustrative examples:

1a1a1c2b1d1b2a (cont.)

She is low-church. He can be leader tonight. You are director of this. He became secretary to the president. He is heir to the throne. She is mother to these children. They were master of it.

2b Number. When equated attributives have determiners and are conceived of as countables (other than group names), a singular subject selectively determines a singular equated attributive and likewise a plural subject selectively determines a plural equated attributive.[8]

These men are my friends.
My friend was a genius.

1a1a1c2b1d2 Attributives to substantives employed as equated attributives. Substantive expressions with regular bounded attributives may have all the post-posed and appositive attributives occurring with any such substantive expressions. Substantive expressions of the type noted above, page 170, section 1a1a1c2b1d1b2a, occurring without determiners may have the following adverbial attributives occurring pre-posed except in the case of enough which occurs post-posed. This pattern however is not common.

He was fully master of it.
It was too tenth century.
You are too sledge-hammer in action.
He is not high-church enough.

[8] Rare exceptions to this pattern occur with such expressions as I am friends with him.

1a1a1c2b1d2 (cont.)

He was man enough to admit it.

1a1a1c2b1e Clauses

e1 Independent-form marked by conjunction

1a Order. Post-posed to verb

1b Selection. Clauses introduced by what, whatever, whatsoever, who, whoever, whosoever, whose, whosever, whosesoever, whether, that, if, because, how, why, where, when, and zero. The occurrence of particular clauses is somewhat conditioned by the subject-head expression, as is indicated in some of the following examples, paralleling the semantic classes noted in post-posed clause attributives to substantive heads (see pp. 98 ff.).

The wonder is that he...
My view is that he should try again.
His conviction is that...
The fact is we need many more men for the jobs.
That is why I live here.
This is where he failed.
He was not who he seemed to be.
His reason was because he couldn't see the blackboard.

1a1a1c2b1e2 Dependent-form clauses

2a Order. Post-posed to verb

2b Selection. These are of the following illustrative types:

1a1a1c2b1e2b (cont.)

The difficulty is Joe coming in too late.
Most theology is man trying to speculate about God.
Justification is man declared righteous by God.

1a1a1c2b1f Marked infinitive

f1 Order. Post-posed to verb

f2 Selection. Any type of marked infinitive

My desire is to see this done.
His purpose has been to give himself...
To see is to believe.

1a1a1c2b2 3rd attributives to the verb-head in equational clause type.

2a Order. The relative orders are the same as for 3rd attributives of the transitive clause type, except immediately post-verb (see pp. 136 ff. for analysis of 3rd attributives with transitive type). In the equational type clause any type of 3rd attributive which may occur pre-verb or within the verb phrase in the transitive type clause may occur in the position between the verb and the equated attributive.

2b Selection. These are of the same types as those listed under transitive clause type (see pp. 136 ff.).

VII.

Independent Goal-Action Clause Types

1a1a2 Goal-action clause types

2a Subject expression. These are identical in order and selection to those types listed under intransitive clause type.[1] Semantically they are, of course, parallel with 2nd attributives to transitive verbs, for the goal-action clause may be derived from the transitive clause by grammatical transposition of component parts.

2b Predicate expression

b1 Verb-head

1a Order. These retain the same relative order as any verb phrase in intransitive clause type.

1b Selection

b1 Inter-class. These include all words which permit the so-called "passive" inversion. These include almost all transitives (except words such as cost, and expressions such as cheese it, beat it, can it, which are transitive in form, but intransitive in meaning) and many so-called intransitives with prepositional phrase attributives (see below for listing of this class, pp. 181 ff.).

[1] Note the use of there in goal-action clauses: There have been some men killed by this storm. To this list there may be added some others.

1a1a2b1b2 Intra-class

2a Patterns for verb phrase. These verbs occur only in patterns 3, 4, and 6. See p. 199.

He is helped.
He has been helped.
He is being helped.

2b All other intra-class selection is identical with that noted for transitive clause types (see pp. 108 ff.).

1a1a2b2 Attributives to the verb-head

2a 1st attributives. These only occur when the 2nd attributive of the underlying transitive construction has become the subject of the goal-action expression.

a1 Order. Same relative order as for transitive clause type (see page 105).

a2 Selection

2a Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb-head:

accord, afford, allot, answer, ask, assign, award, bequeath, bet, bring, buy, cable, carry, cause, charge, concede, copy, deal, deny, do, entrust, fashion, feed, fling, forbid, foretell, forgive, forward, furnish, give, grant, guarantee, hand, leave, lend, make, offer, owe, paid, pay, permit, prescribe, present, promise, provide, reach, read, refuse, remit, restore, save, send,

1a1a2b2a2a (cont.)
serve, show, spare, tell, throw, transmit, vote, wire, wish, write.

2b Constituents. Any type of 1st attributive listed under transitive sentence type (see pages 113 ff.).

A place was accorded him. The question was answered him. This medal was awarded him. A piece of bread was flung him. This was voted him. A letter was written him from Memphis.

1a1a2b2b 2nd attributives. These only occur when the 1st attributive or a portion of the 2nd attributive of the underlying transitive construction has become the subject-head of the goal-action clause.

b1 Order. Same relative order as for the transitive clause type (see page 105).

b2 Selection

2a Conditioners

a1 For 2nd attributives of endocentric constructions

1a Without zero anaphoric substitute for any constituent. The conditioners for this pattern are the occurrence of one of the same verbs as those listed in section 1a1a1a2b1b1, pp. 114 ff., with the exception of the verb cost.

He was given a place. They were offered a job. He was paid the bill. They were dealt

1a1a2b2b2a1a (cont.)
a serious blow. He was forgiven his mistake. He was owed money. The horse was fed corn.

1b With zero anaphoric substitute for the 2nd constituent of the prepositional phrase attributive to the 2nd attributive head. These only occur when the 2nd constituent of such a prepositional phrase has become the subject of the goal-action clause. The following expressions are illustrative of the pattern:

He was taken care of. This must be paid attention to. This was almost lost sight of. He was made a fool of. New means were had recourse to. given effect to, were made short work of, was caught hold of, was made an example of, were made use of, was taken notice of, was put a stop to, was taken possession of, was found fault with, was taken offence at, was made love to, was set fire to, was said good-bye to, was made light of.

1a1a2b2b2a2 For 2nd attributives of basically exocentric constructions. These occur when the 1st immediate constituent, namely, the subject expression of the dependent form clause in the underlying transitive construction has become the subject of the head clause, as in the shift indicated from They told him to go to He was told to go. The conditioners for the various classes of 2nd constituents of such dependent-form clauses are the following:

2a With marked infinitive. Occurrence of one

1a1a2b2b2a2a (cont.)

of the verbs listed under section 1a1a1a2b2b2f2a1, pages 126-127, with the exception of dislike, and like.

He was advised to do it. They were impelled to go. These were judged to be wrong. These were gotten to go. Some were counselled to remain.

2b With unmarked infinitive. Occurrence of see, let, help, bid as verb-heads of goal-action clause. The more regular pattern employs marked infinitives.

He was seen go. He was let go. He was helped go. They were bidden go.

2c With 1st verbal, single or phrasal. Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb-head of the goal-action clause:

apprehend, catch, depict, fancy, feel, get, have, hear, imagine, keep, observe, overhear, pardon, permit, picture, prevent, recollect, remember, report, represent, see, set, watch.

He was caught doing it. They were depicted trying to get by. He was heard leaving. They were kept going. He was prevented crossing the border.

2d With 2nd verbal. Occurrence of one of the following verbs as verb-head of the goal-action clause:

1a1a2b2b2a2d (cont.)

behold, believe, consider, depict, desire, fancy, get, have, hear, imagine, keep, make, observe, order, perceive, permit, picture, prefer, remember, request, see, want, watch,

He was believed tortured. He was considered slain. They were imagined imprisoned. They were ordered removed.

2e With zero verb-head. Occurrence of one of the following types of verbs as verb-head of the goal-action clause:[2]

admit, appoint, assume, believe, call, choose, claim, confess, consider, count, create, crown, declare, deem, drive, dub, elect, esteem, fancy, feel, find, get, have, hold, imagine, judge, keep, lay, leave, make, proclaim, prove, put, regard, render, see, set, spread, think, turn, want.

He was appointed king. They were believed wise. They were held prisoners. They were made strong. It was spread thin. They were taken prisoners.

1a1a2b2b2b Constituents. These are of any type listed

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[2] Most verb-heads which may be said to "actualize" the state or condition of the 2nd constituent of the dependent-form clause may occur in goal-action constructions. Note this usage with clauses discussed on page 131, section 1a1a1a2b2b2f2e2, He was set free, He was shot dead, It was toasted brown, It was washed white, The town was painted red, etc.

1a1a2b2b2b (cont.)
under transitive clause constructions, pp. 125 ff.

1a1a2b2c Alternating attributives. These occur only where the 1st or 2nd type attributive has become the subject of the goal-action clause.

c1 Order. These have the same relative order as in the transitive clause types.

c2 Selection. These are the same as those listed under transitive clause types (see pp. 134 ff.). The following are illustrative of the pattern:

> His troubles were explained away. His hat was put on. The proposition was taken up. The jar was set in. They were stripped off. This was given out.

1a1a2b2d 3rd attributives.

d1 Order. These occur in the same relative order as 3rd attributives listed for transitive clause types (see pp. 136 ff.).

d2 Selection. These are identical with those listed for intransitive clause type with the following exception:

2a Prepositional phrases with zero anaphoric substitute for 2nd constituent, which occur only where the 2nd constituent in a prepositional phrase attributive to a verb-head of an intransitive clause has become the subject of the goal-action clause type, as in the transposition from they spoke of him to He was spoken of.

1a1a2b2d2a1 Order. Immediately post-posed to the verb phrase of the goal-action clause except for short adverbs of location and direction, as in, The work was come back to after considerable delay. He was put up with. This girl was gone out with.

1a1a2b2d2a2 Selection

2a Conditioners. These prepositional phrases with zero anaphoric substitute occurring for the 2nd constituent are limited generally to phrases introduced by the following prepositions and occurring as attributive to those verb-heads noted with each preposition:[3]

a1 about

joke, laugh, write, talk, whisper, speculate, converse, think, trouble

a2 above

rise, go, fly, drive, soar

a3 across

go, walk, run, ride, fly, look, drive

a4 after

go, run, drive, strive, seek, search, call, hunt, gape, hunger, long, pine, walk, leap, spread, watch, look, send.

---

[3] These lists are not exhaustive, only illustrative of the range of possibilities.

1a1a2b2d2a2a5 against

run, drive, go, walk, strive, hit, ride, strike, back, war, fight, proceed

a6 around

run, go, walk, drive, slide, jump

a7 at

laugh, look, strike, hit, run, shoot, grasp, spit, hiss, aim, throw, snarl, jeer, mock, rail, smile, guess, connive, peep, scowl, snap, wonder, sneer, pout, fire, play, wink, arrive,

a8 before

fly, yield, go, drive, ride

a9 beneath

fall, go, walk, ride

a10 beyond

pass, go, walk, ride, drive

a11 by

pass, go, walk, run, come, ride, swear, drive

a12 down

go, walk, step, drive

a13 for

hope, wait, strive, call, atone, wish,

1a1a2b2d2a2a13 (cont.)

ask, plead, answer, substitute, grab, long, come, go, cry, write, listen, stay, watch, send, struggle, seek, provide, prepare, stand, allow, pay, account, speak, make, search, inquire, beg, look, dig, hunt

a14 from

turn, deviate, withdraw, abstain, rest, fall, depart, flee, refrain, run

a15 in

work, sleep, lie, fish, spit, join, engage, meddle, interfere, rejoice, recline, share, indulge, believe, dwell

a16 into

look, back, enter, give, marry, break, burst, run, walk, go, see, penetrate

a17 of

speak, feel, think, smell, hear, speak, talk, dream, repent, beware, taste, sniff, approve, boast, conceive, disapprove, permit, despair

a18 on

count, bet, think, prevail, agree, write, talk, hit, strike, resolve, sit, jump, fall

1a1a2b2d2a2a19 onto

run, drive, walk, fly, step

a20 over

talk, jump, walk, climb, crawl, drive, triumph, preside, go

a21 past

run, walk, go, ride, tear

a22 through

ride, tunnel, fall, look, speak, go, work, pass, run

a23 to

write, sing, read, speak, call, preach, give, listen, appeal, attend, see, run, go, whisper, howl, appeal, pray, lament, lie, glue, cling, stick, submit, bind, tie, fasten, chain, rivet, pin, attach, ally, dance, yield, object, reply, subscribe, defer, phone, telegraph, attain, stick, confess

a24 under

walk, run, climb, slide, go

a25 up

go, ride, walk

a26 upon

look, smile, gape, frown, call, wait,

1a1a2b2d2a2a26 (cont.)
bet, shine, impose, resolve, breathe, ponder, decide, play, begin, remark

a27 with

sympathize, plead, dance, go, walk, talk, work, lie, ride, speak, contend, trifle, play, dispense, meet, cope, consult, stamp, bear, come out, put up, do away, take up, dally, flirt

a28 without

go, do

1a1a2b2d2a2b Constituents. The following examples are illustrative:

It was joked about. The river was driven across. He was run after. This was striven against. It was gone around. He was laughed at. The breakers were ridden before. The place was passed beyond. This was passed by. The steps were gone down. This was hoped for. This habit was abstained from. His clothes were slept in. This must be gone into. He was spoken of. This can be counted on. The walk can be driven onto. This should be gone over. The place was gone past. The hill was tunnelled through. She was sung to. The road was gone under. The hill was walked up. They were smiled upon. They were sympathized with. Bread must be gone without.

VIII.

Attributives to Clauses

1a1b Attributives to clauses

b1 Non-parenthetical. These comprise largely the so-called sentence adverb expression.

1a Order.[1] These occur initial, pre-verb, or within the verb-phrase. Only rarely may they occur following the verb-head, and the usual position is initial to the clause.

1b Selection

b1 Adverbs. The following adverbs often serve as clause attributives:

undoubtedly, naturally, apparently, curiously, undeniably, possibly, inadvertantly, unfortunately, honestly, nevertheless, briefly, apparently, luckily, admittedly, perhaps, significantly, frankly, presumably, happily, certainly, likewise, further, secondly, sometimes, still, yet, besides, however, there-

[1] Certain adverbs show marked differences of meaning when attributive to the verb-head or other constituents in contrast to attribution of the entire clause. Note the following contrastive sentences: He naturally read the letter. He read the letter naturally. He simply replied by mail. He replied by mail simply. I foolishly planned it. I planned it foolishly. He wrote clearly. Clearly, it is the name of a foreigner. He acted wisely. He wisely acted as he should. He is really sick. Really, he is sick.

1a1b1b1 (cont.)
fore, hence, again, notwithstanding, consequently, accordingly, meanwhile, conversely, moreover, furthermore, rather, really, probably, foolishly, then, thus

Undoubtedly, this proposition will mean a great deal.
Moreover, I think that he is...
Some, therefore, have the idea that...
Naturally, we suppose that he...
Unfortunately, he arrived too late.
Altogether, this is most unfortunate.

1a1b1b2 Prepositional phrases. These are of the following types:

On the contrary, I believe...
In consequence, do you believe...
on the other hand, on that account, in other words, by the way, after all.

1a1b1b3 Adjectives with attributives. This rare pattern includes such as the following:

Curious enough, this is just...
Strange as it seems, we must...
Needless to say, this is...
Exclusive of all this, there must be some way...

1a1b1b4 Substantive expressions. This rare pattern includes such as the following:

Sympathy or no sympathy, I wanted to go...
All the same, this is going...
War or no war, some think that they...

1a1b1b5 Infinitives

5a Marked infinitives

To tell the truth, this is not...
To do it justice, this should not really...
To be honest, this thing is too shaken to...
To start with, there seems to be...

5b Unmarked infinitives

Cost what it may, I still want to...
Try as I may, I suppose that I shall never...

1a1b1b6 Clauses marked by conjunctive marker. The substitute which may have as its antecedent an entire clause, as in the following illustrative examples:

They came in large hordes, which is bad form.
They will never get it right, which after all will be to our advantage somewhat.
I told them that I thought so too, which didn't make the slightest difference to them.

1a1b1c Modulation. In moderate speech such expressions as these are usually set-off by an intonational break, particularly if they occur initially. In rapid speech, such contrasts may be lost.

1a1b2 Parenthetical. These rather limited number of expressions are only associated with the clause formally.[2] These do not pattern as integral parts

[2] These are like enclitics to words, which do not form a functional unity in the morphology, but do constitute a part of the phono-

1a1b2 (cont.)

of any endocentric or exocentric construction. The following are illustrative:

that is, namely, I think, in brief, etc.

My idea, that is, the one that he gave me, is to...
This proposition, namely, the conversion of all...
This project, I think, is what you want...

Such parenthetical expressions are always set off by pause-pitches.

---

logical unity. These extra-positional elements are part of the sentence phonologically, and are dependent upon it, in that they do not constitute complete linguistic utterances. These are listed in this place because of their close association in value to the sentence attributives noted just above.

IX.

Dependent Exocentric Patterns

1a2 Dependent exocentric patterns

2a Independent form[1] clauses marked by conjunctions.

a1 Clauses in which the marker constitutes the 1st immediate constituent and the clause the 2nd.

1a Conjunctive markers

a1 Order. These occur before the clause.

a2 Selection. These are the following:

before, after, since, because, that, whether, if, though, although, till, until, while, as,[2] so, than,[3] unless, providing,[4] provided,[4]

[1] These are called independent form on the basis of the fact that the subject expression occurs in the subjective form in the case of the six substitutes indicating the subjective in contrast to objective form.

[2] As clauses are restricted to attribution to expressions containing as, so, same, proportion, etc. and some relatively less frequent situations when adjectives or adverbs occur without as attributives pre-posed, as in, bad as this is. This type of as clause is to be differentiated from as used purely as 3rd type temporal attributive to the verb-head. This latter type does not permit the extensive zero anaphoric substitution as noted below p. 192.

[3] Than clauses are restricted in occurrence to attribution to expressions of comparison or preference.

[4] Such 1st and 2nd verbal forms as providing, provided, considering, seeing, supposing, etc., in such expressions as Seeing he

1a2a1a2 (cont.)
once, now, lest,[5] for, whereas, except,[6] directly,[7] immediately,[7] like, without, and zero.[8]

1b 2nd immediate constituents in independent form clauses.

b1 Order. These follow the conjunctive markers.

b2 Selection. Any type clause may be the 2nd constituent of such a pattern. The following types of zero-anaphoric substitution may occur with various markers:[9]

---

did it, then there must..., Supposing this is true, someone must see to it that.., and Considering he did all that, there is some purpose.., may be considered as conjunctive markers rather than so-called dangling participles (see analysis as 3rd attributives above, p. 150).

[5] Lest is quite obsolescent

[6] Clauses with except are considerably more restricted in usage and variation of pattern with 2nd immediate constituents.

[7] Clauses with directly and immediately are comparatively rare. Note however such expressions as Directly he saw me, he rushed away, and Immediately we entered, they turned upon us. These are parallel in patterning to once and now.

[8] This zero may be classed as an alternate of that due to the parallelism of pattern (see p. 123).

[9] There is no attempt made here to be exhaustive. Only the various types are listed and representative illustrations given. The problem of zero anaphoric substitution is one of the most complex grammatical problems in English.

1a2a1b2a Zero anaphoric substitution of the subject

More people than regularly came were...
This happened as follows.[10]
Such as seldom arrive on time...
There were none but tried it once in a while.
Although elected by a majority, he thought..
Once christened, they think that...
Whether deceived or not, he will nevertheless...

2b Zero anaphoric substitution for the verb-expression.[11]

She plays with it as much as a cat with a mouse.
He cherishes his humble hut more than his rich neighbor the palace on the hill.

2c Zero anaphoric substitute for 2nd attributive.

More men than he invited...
As many as he wanted...
There were none but he knew.

2d Zero anaphoric substitution for the 2nd constituent of a prepositional phrase.

More than he spoke of...
There were fewer than she told the story to.
As many as I can take care of...
None but were properly spoken to...

[10] Such expressions have indefinite antecedents for the zero substitute.

[11] More regularly a form of the verb do occurs as an anaphoric substitute.

1a2a1b2e Zero anaphoric substitution for equated attributive.

As fine as Jim is...
There are none better than Sally is.

2f Zero anaphoric substitution for all the clause except the 3rd attributive.

It was better then than now.
He was as fine then as in the picture.
Although already in the house, he refused...
Once there, he said that he didn't...
While at our place, he refuses...
She is happier than if she were rich...

2g Zero anaphoric substitution of all but the equated attributive.

He is more generous than kind.
He passes as rich.[12]
She was everything except nice.
While sick, one shouldn't try that sort of thing.
Whether well or not, that is not the question.
Though beautiful, she surely was not...

2h Zero anaphoric substitution of all but the 2nd attributive.

I like Jane better than Virginia.
He tried to loaf rather than work.
I like Tom as well as Dick.
We prefer to walk than to ride.

[12] In this specialized pattern for also occurs. Note the similarity in They left him as dead, and They left him for dead. Also He passes for rich.

1a2a1b2i Zero anaphoric substitution of all but the subject.

He is more educated than Jane.
He is as fine as anyone here.

2j Zero anaphoric substitution of all but the 2nd constituent of a prepositional phrase.

He thought more of riding than walking.
He was as fond of cards as anything.

2k Zero anaphoric substitution of all but the verb-head.[13]

They were as kind as could be.

1a2a2 Clauses in which the marker constitutes an integral unit within the exocentric pattern of the subject-predicate type.

1a2a2a Conjunctive markers. These may occur in any clause type having the grammatical constituents with which the conjunctions are listed. See the various sections on such grammatical constituents for a listing of the conjunctive markers and an analysis of their function. This is purely a summary survey as an aid in obtaining a synthetic view of the range of possibilities.

a1 Conjunctive markers functioning as subject expressions.

[13] Types of substitution may be continued if one considers the constituents in dependent-form clauses which may have zero anaphoric substitutes, but the above is sufficient for an outline of the types. It will be noted that except largely for than and as zero anaphoric substitution is confined to the greater extent to substitution for the subject, or all except the 3rd attributive or the equated attributive.

1a2a2a1 (cont.)

that, which, whichever, whichsoever, who, whoever, whosoever, what, whatever, whatsoever, and zero.[14]

The man that came will help me.
He asked who was there.

a2 Conjunctive markers functioning as indirect goals (or 1st attributives).[15]

who, whom, whoever, whomever, whosoever, whomsoever, that, and zero

The man he gave the money will never come back.

a3 Conjunctive markers functioning as direct-goals (or 2nd attributives). These are the same as those for subject-expressions with the addition of whom.

He wondered who they met.
The man whom they saw...

a4 Conjunctive markers functioning as 2nd constituents in prepositional phrases (these are the same as those employed as subject expressions).

I wondered who they were speaking of.
He asked whom they cared for.

---

[14] This involves such expressions as There was a man came to see you.

[15] Normally the pattern with prepositional usage is preferred, as in, The man he gave the money to will never come back.

1a2a2a5 Conjunctive markers functioning as equated attributives. These are the same as for subject expressions.

He wasn't the man that he used to be.
They asked what he was.

a6 Conjunctive markers functioning as 3rd attributives.[16]

when, where, why, how, however, howsoever, wherever, wheresoever, whenever, whensoever, and zero.

They asked where I lived.
The place he worked was terrible.
He wondered how he could do it.

a7 Conjunctive markers functioning as determiners.

which, whichever, whichsoever, what, whatever, whatsoever.

They questioned whichever man showed up.
They wondered what man was there.

1a2b Dependent form[17] clauses. These may be of any basic type.

b1 Subject expression.

---

[16] These possibilities of occurrence may be increased by considering the constituents in dependent clauses, but these indicate the range of the pattern as regards types of occurrence.

[17] These are classed as dependent form on the basis of the objective forms occurring for the six substitutes, me, him, her, us, them, and whom, and the non-finite character of the verb.

1a2b1a Order. Preposed to the verb-head.

1b Selection. These may be of any class of subject expressions occurring in independent clauses, with the restrictions (1) that these subject expressions of dependent form clauses are predominately substantives or substitutes, (2) that they do not occur with preposed attributives of the type attributive to substantives and substitutes, and (3) the so-called objective forms occur in the case of me, him, her, us, them, and whom.

b2 Predicate expression. The verb head may occur with any types of attributives normally occurring with transitive, intransitive or equational verbs. In the following section, however, we deal only with the verb heads.

2a Order. Post-posed to subject

2b Selection. The following types[18] of verb-heads occur.

b1 Any type of marked infinitive as verb-head.

him to go
them to see him
there to be no trouble
the people to be discouraged

They wanted him to go.
They commanded them to see him.

b2 Any unmarked infinitive, single or pattern 3.

---

[18] For the variety of patterns which these clauses occur in, see various sections of the outline on independent clause types.

1a2b2b2 (cont.)

him go, them do it, him be threatened[19]

I saw him go.
I noticed them do it.
I saw him be threatened

b3 Any verbal, single and phrase types 1, 3, 4, and 5.

him going, them doing it, being encouraged, them having helped

I saw him going. They noticed them doing it.
I remember him being encouraged. I remember them having helped.

b4 Any 2nd verbal

him slain, them crippled by the accident

We saw him slain. They fancied them crippled by the accident.

b5 With zero verb-head[20]

him happy, him in good spirits, him king

I wanted him happy. I found him in good spirits. They chose him king.

---

[19] Compare the corresponding independent form clauses: I saw he went, I noticed they did it, I saw he was threatened.

[20] Note the corresponding clauses with marked infinitives: I wanted him to be happy. I found him to be in good spirits. They chose him to be king.

1a2c Verb Phrases[21]

c1 Basic constructions

1a Second immediate constituents[22]

a1 Order. These follow the 1st immediate constituents.

a2 Selection[23]

2a 1st verbal, single. These occur in patterns 2 and 5.

going, hitting, playing, being, saying, etc.

2b 2nd verbal. These occur in patterns 1, 3, 4, and 6.

gone, beaten, fallen, cut, played, etc.

1a2c1b First immediate constituents

b1 Order. These precede the 2nd immediate constituents.

b2 Selection

---

[21] The exocentricity of this pattern is evidenced in the non-identity of the resultant phrase from the function class of either constituent. The resultant phrase belongs to the function class of the second constituent as regards attributives, but the 2nd constituent alone does not pattern as a finite verb expression, while the phrase as a whole does have this value.

[22] This immediate constituent is second in order but for convenience of listing is noted first.

[23] These second constituents under certain contextually conditioned circumstances may have a zero anaphoric substitute.

1a2c1b2a With one constituent element

a1 Any single finite form of have (namely, have, has, or had) plus any 2nd verbal (pattern 1).

have helped, has gone, had become

a2 Any single finite form of be (namely, am, is, are, was, were) plus any 1st verbal (pattern 2).

am helping, is going, were becoming, was trying

a3 Any single finite form of be (am, is, are, was, were)[24] plus any 2nd verbal of the goal-action class of verbs (pattern 3).

am helped, is killed, are kicked, was tortured,

1a2c1b2b With two constituents. These are patterns 1 and 2 above.

1a2c1b2b1 Any single finite form of have plus been

1a These occur with any 2nd verbal of the goal-action class (pattern 4).

has been helped, had been killed, have been kicked.

1b These occur with an 1st verbal except being (pattern 5).

has been helping, has been coming, has been proving.

---

[24] Get may likewise be considered as patterning as be in this pattern, as evidenced by such usage as They got married by the old parson.

1a2c1b2b2 Any single finite form of be plus being.[25] These occur with any 2nd verbal of the goal-action class (pattern 6).

is being helped, was being killed

1a2c2 Secondary constructions

2a Second constituents[26]

a1 Order. These follow the 1st immediate constituents.

a2 Selection. These are any infinitive pattern (see page 202) and are based on patterns, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

have helped, be helping, be helped, have been helped, have been helping

2b First immediate constituents.

b1 Order. These precede the 2nd immediate constituents.

b2 Selection. These occur in any single finite form together with the following types of infinitives.

2a With any unmarked infinitive

will, shall, may, can, must

---

[25] It should be noted that the sequence of two words in such verb phrases containing the morpheme be does not occur. No infinitive is built on pattern 6.

[26] Under contextually conditioned circumstances zero anaphoric substitution may occur for such 2nd constituents.

1a2c2b2b With any marked infinitive

ought[27]

2c With any single unmarked infinitive

do

2d With unmarked infinitive, single or phrase patterns 1, 2, and 3.

had (with 3rd attributives better, rather, sooner, etc.)

Had better go, had rather have gone,

better

better go, better have done, better be saying

1a2d Infinitives, phrasal

d1 Unmarked. These have the same constituents as the first five basic patterns listed above page 200, with the exception that the first constituent is an infinitive rather than a finite form.

(1) have helped, (2) be helping, (3) be helped, (4) have been helped, (5) have been helping.

d2 Marked infinitives.

2a 1st immediate constituent

a1 Order. The marker to precedes the 2nd im-

[27] Ought patterns together with the other so-called auxiliaries in the use of zero anaphoric substitutions, in not occurring as a regular verb of any other class, and in not possessing an infinitive.

1a2d2a1 (cont.)
mediate constituents

a2 Selection. To is the marker for infinitives, single or phrasal

2b 2nd immediate constituent. Zero anaphoric substitution may occur for any 2nd constituent under contextually conditioned circumstances.

b1 Order. These follow the first immediate constituent.

1a2d2b2 Selection. These may be any single or phrase infinitives. Such infinitives may occur in any frame, as being single or multiple, with or without coordinators, etc., as any verb phrase (see pages 105 ff.). Such 2nd constituents may have as attributives any type of attributive noted for the various classes of finite verb-heads. Attributives pre-posed to 2nd constituents are relatively short.

> to have helped him, to be trying something new, to be furnished a bed, to have been constantly helped, to have been slowly becoming better, to be good, to quietly wait.

1a2e Verbals, phrasal. The order and constituents are identical with those of the basic finite verb phrase patterns 1, 3, 4, and 5, with the exception that the 1st constituent is always a 1st verbal. These phrase verbals may have as attributives any class of attribution listed for the respective verb classes.

> (1) having helped, (3) being helped, (4) having been helped, and (5) having been helping.

1a2f Prepositional phrase expressions

f1 Prepositional phrases as exocentric heads to endocentric constructions (see pages 212 ff., for attributives to prepositional phrases). Prepositional phrases are normally attributive to some other part of the sentence, but since there are a few instances in which such phrases have endocentric attributives, they are described here with this particular feature in mind.

1a 1st constituent

a1 Order. These precede the 2nd constituent except where the 2nd constituent is employed as a clause marker and occurs before the 1st constituent, usually at the first of the clause. These markers are that, who, whoever, whosoever, whom, whomever, whomsoever, what, whatever, whatsoever, which, whichever, whichsoever, where, wherever, wheresoever, and zero (see p. 195).

a2 Selection

2a Frame

a1 Single

He was with the man.
He came in the house.

a2 Multiple

1a2f1a2a2a With single coordinators

and, or, and pause-pitch

1a2f1a2a2a (cont.)

by and for the people
These flew above, below, and through the screen mesh.
They were in or below the entanglement.
over and above these

2b With double coordinators

either...or, neither...nor, both...and

They were neither for nor against it.
They are either in or near his home.
They are both in and of the group.

1a2f1a2b Constituents.[28] One of the following words:

---

[28] The following types of expressions, which in many cases are largely reduced to formulae, are, however, best considered analytically: in accordance with, in addition to, in care of, on behalf of, by means of, by reason of, by way of, on account of, with regard to, contrary to, owing to, due to, relative to.

A sequence of adverb plus prepositional phrase is best treated analytically as an adverb with prepositional attributive, this being a common pattern. Such common collocations as the following may best be treated in this manner: up to, out of, down in, instead of, along with, abreast of, apart from.

Since the word because does not pattern regularly as an adverb it may be considered as a preposition which occurs only with a prepositional phrase as 2nd constituent, a pattern which may occur with from and till. On the other hand, its parallelism to words listed just above may justify its classification as an adverb which always has as an attributive a post-posed prepositional phrase of which the 1st constituent is of.

The fact that certain 1st verbal forms are restricted as to attributives to the same classes as are most prepositions places them

1a2f1a2b (cont.)

aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, alongside, amid, amidst, among, amongst around, as,[29] astride, at, atop, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, betwixt, beyond, but, by, concerning, despite, down, during, except, for, from, in, into, like, minus,[30] near, next, of, off, on, onto, opposite, outside, over, past, per, plus,[30] round, save, since, through, throughout, till, to, towards, under, underneath, until, unto, up, upon, via, with, within, without.

1a2f1b Second immediate constituents in prepositional phrases.[31]

b1 Order. These follow the 1st immediate constituents except for the cases noted above in section 1a2f1a1, page 204.

b2 Selection

---

also in the above list of prepositions on the basis of parallelism of pattern. These are: concerning, considering, excepting, notwithstanding, regarding, saying, touching, barring. See p. 150, for an alternative classification.

[29] For the most part as functions as a conjunction, but in some constructions it is best treated as a preposition, e.g. as a rule (he went to sleep), as a general (he was a flop), as usual (I went).

[30] The parallelism of pattern in plus and minus place these two words in this class.

[31] These may occur single or multiple in the same types of frames as the 1st constituents. See pp. 204-206.

1a2f1b2a Substantives. Any type of substantive expression may occur, with the restriction that only bounded, post-posed and appositive attributives may occur.

in the very little house
with the man in grey
by the tumbled-down shop sheltered with sprawling sycamores

2b Substitutes. Any type of substitute occurring as 1st or 2nd type attributive to the verb-head. See pages 113 ff. and pages 118 ff.

with her, for others, with yours, at John's, from ourselves, for each other, see to it that he doesn't...

2c Adverbs

c1 Conditioners. Occurrence of the following types of prepositions:

by, till, from, for, in, out, back, up, down, along, across, through, over, round, around, off, near, until, before, at, since.

c2 Constituents. These are principally adverbs of location and time. The following are illustrative:

till then, by far, since when can't I do that, out there, back here, down there, from behind, from abroad, until now, till then, at once, for ever, since then, by then, for long.

1a2f1b2d Adjectives. These are limited in extent. The following are illustrative of the pattern:

1a2f1b2d (cont.)

in private, in earnest, at large, in vain, at last, at first, on high, of old, of late, in brief, in common, at full, in general, of old, in particular, in short, for better or worse, through thick and thin, in short.

2e 1st verbals. Any type of 1st verbal occurring with any type of preposition. The following are illustrative:

talk about having worked, afraid of going, disgusted at being seen doing that, help in trying, end by living, count on going, forced into meeting them, equivalent to firing them, charged with having stolen it, lean towards attempting, ask about marrying, on entering, without trying, sorry for having been trying it, etc.

2f Clauses, independent form, marked by conjunctions.

f1 Conditioners. These may occur with any type of preposition.

f2 Constituents

2a Clauses introduced by markers, which serve as 1st immediate constituent and the clause as the 2nd.

that, after, whether, if, before

in that he is a fool, except that he is a fool, until after he is dead, question of whether he was really hurt, depends on

1a2f1b2f2a (cont.)

if he wants to help, the time till before he came.

1a2f1b2f2b Clauses introduced by markers which serve as integral grammatical constituents within the subject-predicate exocentric pattern.

how, why, where, when, however, howsoever, wherever, wheresoever, whenever, whensoever, what, whatever, whatsoever, who, whoever, whosoever, whom, whomever, whomsoever, which, whichever, whichsoever, whose, whosever, whosesoever.

of how he did it, for what he did, about when he liked it, concerning who would do it, for whatsoever he could get, to where he lived, of which one he preferred.

1a2f1b2g Dependent-form clauses

g1 Conditioners. Occurrence of one of the following:

1a Prepositions as 1st constituents of phrases which are not dependent upon particular verbs, adjectives, or nouns.

for, with, without

it was nothing for him to go, with him leaving we were hopeless, Without this being done, we could not proceed.

1a2f1b2g1b Prepositions as 1st constituents of phrases which are dependent upon particular verbs, adjectives, or nouns, and which regularly occur

1a2f1b2g1b (cont.)
post-posed to the head. The following are illustrative only:

write to him to come, his objection to him doing it, trust in him to get by, urged upon them to see it, longed for them to go, anxious for him to come, counsel with them to leave, laugh at him doing it, think of them trying it, story of them going into Texas, nothing about him seeing her.

1a2f1b2g2 Constituents. Dependent-form clauses of the following types:

2a With marked infinitive as verb-head. These occur with:

a1 The prepositions of class 1a2f1b2g1a, page 209, namely, for, with, and without.

For him to undertake that sort of thing, we thought that some sort of action should be taken by us.
With him to do all our work, we should not..
Without a man to see to this, there is likely to be all sorts of trouble.

a2 The following prepositions of class 1a2f1b2g1b, page 209:

to, upon, for, on, with, in

look to him to do it, too late for there to be any business, prevail on him to reply, counsel with him to do it, trust in him to see to it.

1a2f1b2g2b With unmarked infinitive as verb-head. These occur with the following prepositions of the class 1a2f1b2g1b, page 209.

at, to

look at him go, listen to him play

2c With 1st verbal as verb-head. These occur with:

c1 The following prepositions of class 1a2f1b2g1a, page 209:

with, without

With him doing all that, surely we can afford...
Without him trying to help us, we can extricate ourselves from this mess.

c2 The following prepositions of class 1a2f1b2g1b, page 209.

to, upon, on, at, of, in, about

trust to him seeing that, depend upon him doing his best, rely on him trying at least, think of him doing all that, confident in him seeing the point, puzzled about him doing that.

2d With zero verb-head. This is rare and occurs only with with and without of class 1a2f1b2g1a, page 209.

with conscription a law, we must soon decide...

1a2f1b2g2d (cont.)
without my proposition complete, there is no need...

1a2f1b2h Prepositional phrases as 2nd immediate constituents of prepositional phrases.

h1 Conditioners. Occurrence of prepositions of the following types as 1st immediate constituents:[32]

from, till, since, except, because,[33] save, of, to

from over the hill, since before Christmas, till within a month, to within an inch, save for that letter, but for the rest, because of my illness, of from ten to twenty, from inside the place, from of old, except for my sickness.

h2 Constituents. Any type of prepositional phrase may serve as 2nd immediate constituents.

1a2f2 Attributives to prepositional phrases. This is a comparatively rare pattern of attribution.

2a Adverbs.

a1 Order. Pre-posed to prepositional phrase.

a2 Selection. These are of the following types:

---

[32] These are simply the most common prepositions of this class. The expansion of this pattern to the point of absurdity may be noted in such a possible expression as, Come out from down in under behind the counter!

[33] See note on because, p. 205.

1a2f2a2 (cont.)

more, right, entirely, almost, practically, only

entirely around the world, more in doubt, the stop-light right in the middle of the road, a man entirely in the wrong

2b Substantives

b1 Order. Pre-posed to prepositional phrase.

b2 Selection. These are restricted largely to expressions of quantity of degree.

a little, a mile, a few, etc.

a boy a little over ten, the farm a mile beyond the mill.

X.

Multiple Clause Frames

1b Multiple clause frames

b1 Order. Clauses of any type may occur in any sequence.

b2 Selection

2a Conditioners. Such clauses must be coordinated by coordinating conjunctions.

a1 Single coordinators

1a Order. These immediately precede each following clause.

1b Selection

and, but, or, nor, 'pause-pitch'

It is early and I will stay.
I can't see it, but I'll try.
He came home, or at least tried to.
He didn't try that nor[1] did he make any excuse.
It is ten o'clock; I must leave immediately.[2]

a2 Double coordinators

[1] Nor occurs only when the previous clause is negative.

[2] The use of pause-pitch alone gives the common paratactic arrangement so common in colloquial usage.

1b2a2a Order. The 1st coordinator either occurs initial, pre-predicate, within the verb phrase, or post-verb in the case of be or have. The second coordinator or occurs immediately before the subsequent coordinated clause, or in some cases, clauses. The first coordinator neither occurs the same as either except for the restriction of post-verb position. The second coordinator in this series, nor, occurs the same as or. The second coordinators may potentially occur before several subsequent clauses, but regularly only two clauses are coordinated.

2b Selection

either...or, neither...nor

He either tried to see him or I miss my guess.
He neither accomplished his purpose, nor will anyone else be able to do it now.
Either he failed completely or I have been badly deceived.

1b2b Constituents of multiple independent clauses within one sentence. These may be of any clause type, transitive, intransitive, equational, and goal-action. Potentially any number may occur within any one sentence, but more than three are relatively rare.

XI.

Minor Sentence Types

2 Minor sentence types[1]

2a Completive type. These are contextually conditioned by the linguistic situation. They are answers made to questions, additions made to previous statements, and supplements to practical situations of gesture or presence of the referent which serve to define the context.[2] The following are illustrative:

"Which one was it?"	"This one."
Yesterday.	At your service.
Sure!	No apologies, now.
That one.	Here?
Here!	John?
If you like.	How much?
Yes.	Not me?
No.	Dinner at six.
Sorry, my mistake.	No matter.
Better luck next time.	

2b Exclamatory type

[1] These may occur alone as complete linguistic utterances or combined by parataxis or coordinators with any major sentence type.

[2] For example, often purchases may be made entirely with the use of minor sentence types: "How much for these?" "Fifty cents a dozen." "Too much." "How about these over here?" "Well, how much for them?" "Forty cents per." "All right." "A few sprigs of parsley too, then?" "Okay." "Thanks!" "Good-bye."

2b1 Interjections

1a Selection

a1 Primary. These are of the following types:

ah, hello, tsk, h'm, phew, pooh, pshaw, tut-tut, ugh, whew, wow, gosh, gee, hush, hurrah, heck, darn, well, ouch.

a2 Secondary. These consist of more than one constituent and are of the following types:

dear me, gracious me, goodness gracious, oh dear, damn it, by golly, by God, thank you, good-bye, what the heck, oh me, oh my, great guns, Caesar's ghost.

1b Modulation. All these occur with exclamatory intonation patterns.

2b2 With verb-head in the predicate.

2a With unmarked infinitive as verb-head

a1 Selection

1a With 1st person subject. The first person singular personal pronoun regularly occurs in the objective form. Exclamatory rejection intonation occurs normally with an interrogative pattern.

Me do that!?
Me be a fool for his sake!?

1b With 2nd person as subject.[3] These may occur

[3] In longer sentences there is an overlapping of intonation patterns so that a sentence, "You come on in the second act." may be interpreted as imperative or narrative, with the same intonation pattern.

2b2a1b (cont.)
with or without stated subject. Such infinitives are addressed to the hearer or hearers and command response (hence generally called "imperatives").

Come home! You come home!
Be guided by your better judgment!
Help him at once!

1c With 3rd person subject

c1 With stated 3rd person subject

Grammar be hanged! Everybody run!
The people be damned! Nobody move now!
God bless you! The saints preserve us!
Heaven help him!

c2 Without stated 3rd person subject. In such cases the supernatural is implied.

Damn you! Confound it! Bless him!

2b2a2 Modulation. These patterns occur with exclamatory intonation.

2b2b With would as verb-head, with or without stated subject. This pattern is a special formula and occurs with exclamatory optative intonation.

Would to God that they would!
I would to God that he could do it!

2b2c With zero verb-head. These clauses are equational and occur regularly with exclamatory rejection intonation, with or without accompanying interrogative intonation.

2b2c (cont.)

He a gentleman! Me a professor!?
She a beauty! That fellow a poet!?

2b3 Expressions not containing verbs as heads. These are exclamatory utterances designed to direct the attention to or of the referent. They always occur with exclamatory intonation.

3a Expressions directing the attention to the referent.

Murder! Fire! Police! This one! Here! There! To the ropes! Now!

3b Expressions directing the attention of the referent. These are so-called "vocatives" and are of the following illustrative types:

Mother! John! Dearest! My boy! You over there!

2c Aphoristic expressions. These are strictly limited and except for the patterns (1) the plus comparative..., and (2) better..than.., they are generally non-productive. The following are illustrative:

Well begun half done. Old saint young sinner. No pains no gains. Like father like son. So far so good. Least said soonest mended. First come first served. Love me love my dog. Better untaught than ill-taught. Better bend than break. Better ask than go astray. The rougher the way, the better we like it. The more they came, the more the people shouted. The more I think of it, the less I approve.

XII.

Summary

With regard to the methodology employed in this synopsis of English grammar there are certain observations which are pertinent to a summary statement. In the first place this methodology frees English grammar from the strait-jacket of classical terminology and constructions. This means that there is an increased recognition of the significance of classes as determined by the function of the words rather than classes determined on the basis of form. For Classical grammar, where the correlation is high between the "form-classes" on the morphological level and "function-classes" on the syntactic level, there was little need for this continual distinction, but for English these differences in levels of analysis must be recognized, and with this recognition comes the realization that the syntactic system of English is highly organized. This helps to remove the popular misconception that English has "no grammar" or at best only loose patterns readily shifted. This impression has arisen because members of various form-classes may occur in one function-class, but the boundaries of such function-classes are as definable as are the boundaries of the form-classes. The special value of the method employed in this treatment is that it defines the limits of such functional classes by lists.

As a result of freeing the statement of English grammar from the domination of the Classical mold,

the application of this methodology groups words together which were formerly separated. For example, shall and will are here considered as patterning with may, can and must. Only the comparative value as indicated by the translation of Classical forms has given shall and will special paradigmatic recognition in conventional grammars.

The analysis of English as it is, rather than trying to employ the traditional apparatus for the statement of categories and their range of importance, results in a shift of values formerly attached to certain categories. The objective case, which figures rather prominently in the usual treatment of English syntax, is relatively unimportant. There are actually only six words which indicate this objective case distinction. The factor of word-order is far more important. Accordingly, in shifting the emphasis from older formal categories this methodology calls attention to the significance of factors often neglected or over-looked. This is particularly true of order, which is dealt with in more or less detail in the above outline, and of modulation, the importance and taxemic value of which is noted, though not developed as in the case of order.

The consistent application of the four taxemes throughout the grammatical treatment gives rise to two distinct advantages. First, it gives a purely synchronic view of the materials. The rigorous application of the method eliminates historical and comparative considerations, for all tagmemes are defined purely in terms of those taxemes, which are functional relationships. Secondly, this method enables one to describe the various levels of morphology, syntax,

and lexicon, thus eliminating the usual confusion which results from the analysis of each form-class as a formal unit, then as a functional unit, and finally as a lexical element, without ever giving the total pattern into which it fits.

The outline method employed in this synopsis is found to have three special values. First, it makes possible a clear indication of the relationships between the various constructions. This is the most concise and accurate way that such relationships can be pointed out. Secondly, the outline method indicates the successive layers of immediate constituents, and the recognition of the immediate constituents in any syntactic structure is one of the most essential factors. Thirdly, the outline form makes possible the presentation of the broad patterns and at the same time includes the details, without which arrangement both the patterns and the details lose their significance.

There are two practical values which may be noted for this method of analysis of English syntax. First, such a treatment and classification of the broad patterns in the language actually makes possible the study of style from the grammatical viewpoint. The apparatus for such analysis has been largely lacking due to the failure of grammarians to treat the more inclusive syntactic units and constituents, for in analyzing the style of any particular work it is not enough to be able to deal with the minutiae of selections, but rather the general clause and sentence patterns, and to check these for frequency, variety, and particular adaptations.

Secondly, in the teaching of grammar this method has significant value. The student is not confronted

with a maze of terms which he cannot apply to his materials. This is painfully evident in the reactions of students who so often exclaim that they never understood English grammar until they took Latin. What they are in reality saying is that they never could see the application of the terminology until they took Latin, a language for which the terminology is quite well adapted, but decidedly inadequate and arbitrary when applied to English. This confusion in the average student's mind contributes very largely to the prevailing dislike for English grammar. However, when the student realizes that he can apply the four taxemes to any significant grammatical construction and by such analyze it himself and that the term which he uses to denote the episememe of the tagmeme is not the important thing, but rather his recognition of the immediate constituents and the place of this unit in the larger pattern, then grammar takes on new life.

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